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ABSTRACT

Simulated Administration of a Regular Guidance Operation (SARGO) is a program for the training of directors of guidance and pupil personnel services. The objective of SARGO is to prepare directors of guidance services to: (1) prepare a written description of a pupil personnel program; (2) interact with a school administrator to clarify role perceptions; (3) present a public image as a change agent; (4) communicate effectively with the public concerning guidance services; (5) organize a useful testing program; (6) design a drug information program; (7) demonstrate effectiveness in counseling with parents; (8) make oral presentations on learning problems and teacher effectiveness; (9) conduct staff case conferences; (10) demonstrate interaction skills concerning racial issues; (11) establish guidelines for referrals to community resources; (12) design a research prospectus for outside funding; (13) prepare a typescript of a counseling session; (14) discuss drug, sex, and confidentiality cases; and (15) become a generally more qualified director of guidance. Materials include: Typical Encounters of the Day and Typical Personnel Encounters. Participation in the simulation requires written materials, role playing, a-v equipment, small group interaction, in-basket/out-basket techniques and use of case studies. Participants pre-establish the simulated setting. (BW)

ED 069993

SARGO

Simulated Administration of a Regular Guidance Operation

A Training Program for the Training of Directors of Guidance

Developed by

Ronald H. Fredrickson

Charles Popken

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Administration of Guidance Services
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University of Massachusetts

SARGO #1

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Simulated Administration of a Regular Guidance Operation

Introduction to Simulation Concept, Statement of Course Objectives, and Definition of Student-selected Hypothetical Community and School Situation.

Purpose: It would appear ridiculous to expect a school administrator to be a guidance specialist yet, conversely, it may reasonably be expected that an administrator of guidance services be a guidance specialist. Writers in the literature of guidance seem to accept both administrative and leadership functions of the director of guidance (Peters, Schertzer, 1969).

You are here to receive training in those skills necessary to function successfully as a specialized administrator, specifically as a director (or supervisor) of guidance (or pupil personnel services).

In general, to function effectively as a director of guidance, you should be capable of (1) planning, (2) organizing, (3) staffing, (4) training, (5) directing, and (6) evaluating a pupil personnel service (Hatch, Steffire, 1965).

Specifically, and in accordance with evidence obtained from in-service directors of guidance, it is our aim to offer you training in several interactions that they reported to be relatively frequent in their fulfillment of their functions. The interactions are with (1) administrators, (2) counselors, (3) students, (4) teachers, (5) parents, (6) community resource agencies, and (7) with the public as a whole.

Riccio (1969) and Walz (1969) have described a need for innovation in our profession and in the training leading to professionalization of guidance personnel.

A decade ago Wynn (1960) described the training of school administrators as follows:

> The mediocrity of preparation comes from the sterility of methods reported. Instruction is classroom-bound; administration is talked about

rather than observed, felt, and in these and other ways actually experienced. Where the student should be "scared" by exposure to the facts of administrative life, he is instead bored by the tame farce of second-hand success stories. Where the student should be fattened by a rich diet of multidisciplinary fare, he is starved by the lean offerings of provincial chow.

The description unfortunately still appears to be appropriate.

To offset Wynn's criticism and to meet Riccio's and Walz's needs, we have constructed a new program, which has been tested in two previous semesters. This semester will be devoted to a simulation program. It will attempt to provide vicariously and as realistically as possible the experience of actually being a director of guidance services. You may pre-establish your institutional setting, the size and nature of the hypothetical community, and your philosophy of guidance. Your participation should demonstrate competence, innovation, and original thought.

Program content will include Typical Encounters of the Day (TED) and Typical Personal Encounters (TPE). Your participation in the simulated interactions will require prepared written material, role-playing, the use of video tape recorders, small group interactions, the use of in-basket/out-basket techniques, and of case studies. Randomly selected class members will enact the guidance director's role in TPE's.

Specific reading assignments will be made as necessary. Most of your reading, however, should be self-selected and should be done in preparation of your reaction to the TED's. Your written reactions should be maintained in a cumulative notebook.

Objectives:

The objective of SARGO is to prepare directors of guidance services who are capable of the following performances. (This list is not intended to be conclusive or sequential).

1. Prepare a written description of your pupil personnel program including measurable objectives, procedures, budget, and evaluation plan.

2. Interact with a school administrator to clarify role perceptions.

3. Present a public image of a person who can contribute to change in individuals and in education institutions. The image should be for presentation via the multi-media of newspaper, radio, and television.

4. Communicate effectively with students, teachers, administrators, parents, and the public on what guidance services are, in keeping with the A.S.C.A. role statement.

5. Organize in writing a useful and well-selected testing program. Be able to defend it orally.

6. Design and prepare a drug information and education program.

7. Demonstrate effectiveness in counseling with parents.

8. Make oral presentations to teachers on learning problems and demonstrate how counselors can help teachers be more effective in classrooms.

9. Conduct guidance staff case conferences.

10. Demonstrate interaction skills reflecting insights into racial issues.

11. Establish guidelines for referrals to and interactions with other community resource agencies.

12. Design and prepare a research prospectus for outside funding.

13. Prepare a typescript of a counseling session and demonstrate skills in supervising counselors on guidance and the guidance staff.

14. Discuss three cases involving the APGA Code of Ethics; drugs, sex, confidentiality.

15. You are now a qualified director of guidance, and are ready to seek a better position. Prepare a personal vita.

Required Texts: Peters, Herman J. and Bruce Shertzer, Guidance:

Program Development and Management, 2nd ed, 1969, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.

Malcolm X (Malcolm Little with Alfred Haley), The Autobiography of Malcolm X, 1965, New York, Grove Press.

Recommended Collateral Reading (for the moment): Schein, Edgar H., Organizational Psychology, Foundations of Modern Psychology Series, 1965, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Assignment for next session.

TED No. 1

1. Briefly describe in writing the school system in which you would see yourself as director of guidance services, in the near future. Try for realism in your fantasy.

   a. Size and nature of community.
   b. School size, inclusive structure (K-12, 7-12, etc), curriculum organization, instructional staff, facilities.
   c. Guidance staff, facilities, and philosophy.

2. Prepare a double-spaced, two-page article for the local newspaper introducing yourself and what you see as the objectives and philosophy of a guidance program.

Typical Personal Encounter (TPE) for the next class session.

One person will be selected randomly from the class to demonstrate how he would discuss with his superintendent the role and function of the guidance program. If possible, a school administrator will be present to make the demonstration as realistic as possible. If not, the randomly non-selected major segment of the class population will sit in committee (simulating a school board).

Suggested reference: Strickland, Ben, The Philosophy-Theory-Practice Continuum: A Point of View, Counselor Education and Supervision 8:3, Spring 1969, pp 167-168.

A JOINT
ACES-ASCA
POLICY STATEMENT
CONCERNING
THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR

FOR SUPERINTENDENTS
OF SCHOOLS
AND SCHOOL BOARDS

Sponsored by the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision and the American School Counselor Association (Divisions of the American Personnel and Guidance Association), and the American Association of School Administrators.

Educational excellence requires teamwork. The unique contribution of the school counselor to the educational team is not always clearly understood. Even though there is general agreement about the need for counselors, there is confusion about how best to make use of their potential. This statement is designed to help superintendents and school board members understand the conditions under which school counselors can make their greatest contributions to educational excellence. The superintendent and the school board have a right to hold certain *expectations* of a school counselor. In turn, they have a responsibility to make certain *commitments to* him if their expectations are to be realized.

SECTION ONE—EXPECTATIONS

I. *The superintendent of schools and the school board have a right to expect the work of the school counselor to contribute to the purposes of the school.* This is ultimately the sole justification for his presence in the school setting.

A. The work of the counselor should contribute directly to the *specific purposes* of the school by helping students to achieve greater learning efficiency so that they can benefit more fully from the offerings of the school.

1. *Developmental counseling.* The counselor should help each student achieve as smooth a transition as possible through the normal sequence of developmental stages from childhood toward adult. Only if the student successfully moves into more mature stages of development will he increasingly be able to assume responsibility for his own learning; until then he cannot take full advantage of the educational opportunities offered by the school.

2. *Decision-making and planning.* The counselor should help each student with both short-term and long-term decision-making and planning, thereby promoting the more efficient learning that results from goal-directed behavior. The counselor should help each student understand the significance of the learning activities in which he takes part by helping him recognize their relevance to valued goals.

3. *Crisis counseling.* The counselor should help each student to be reasonably free from, or at least able to control, distracting needs and problems so that in the classroom the student is able to give attention to the learning activity in which he is involved. It is not implied here that the counselor should practice therapy but rather that he should stand by, ready to provide a sort of "psychological first aid."

B. The work of the counselor should contribute directly to the *broad purposes* of education in a democratic society—purposes such as personal growth of students, desirable human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibilit

The superintendent and the board have ght to expect the counselor to be the fective guardian of individuality and e individual. This is essential in an itution which must, by its very nature, often value conformity, risk the pening of creativity, and place concern the mass above that for the individual.

Direct: Individual or group counseling. counselor should provide each student o so desires an opportunity for exploration and self-discovery of his innermost feelings and personal values a non-threatening relationship with ature adult.

Indirect: Through significant adults. counselor should work directly with chers and other significant adults to help m to understand and foster the unique ividuality of each student.

Indirect: Through the climate of the ool. The counselor should participate curriculum construction and other school icy-making activities with special ponsibility for insuring that the guidance nt of view permeates the total activities the school.

III. *The superintendent and the board have a right to expect the work of the counselor to be founded on sound rationale.* This is one of the distinguishing characteristics of the work of the professional.

A. The work of the counselor should be demonstrably related to the counselor's stated purposes; the counselor should have a logically defensible reason for doing what he does the way he does it.

IV. *The superintendent and the board have a right to expect the counselor to have a commitment to school counseling as a profession.* This presumes not only continued employment but a lifelong desire to go on learning.

A. The counselor should assume responsibility for continued personal and professional development through participation in professional organizations and through formal and informal study throughout his entire career.

SECTION TWO—COMMITMENTS

I. *The superintendent and the board should make a commitment to view counseling as a professional career position.*

A. This means viewing school counseling not as a temporary or occasional assignment but as a career commitment which requires a professional expertise that cannot be acquired without extensive and intensive training.

B. This means providing for leadership and supervision and placing this responsibility with professionally qualified personnel.

C. This means utilizing the counseling position for functions integral to guidance services and not permitting it to be eroded by assignment to unrelated duties.

II. *The superintendent and the board should make a commitment to view counseling as a staff, not a line, position.*

A. This means considering the counselor as one who provides service to all—to pupils, to teachers, to administrators—but who is not within the chain of command.

B. This means guaranteeing the counselor as much backing as possible under the law for his right to privileged communication in all matters involving confidentiality of information received from students or adults.

III. *The superintendent and the board should make a commitment to provide the counselor with sufficient time and facilities for the effective performance of his duties.*

A. This means employing a sufficient number of counselors to make possible a reasonable case load.

B. This means providing adequate clerical help, sufficient supplies and equipment, and appropriate office space that provides for privacy during interview sessions.

IV. *The superintendent and the board sho make a commitment to hire only well qualified, fully trained professionals—and then to give them freedom and responsibility commensurate with their le of specialized preparation.*

A. This means recognizing the counselo as a specialist in a field with a distinct body of knowledge, as one who has a significant contribution to make to the deliberations which determine the basic policies of the school.

B. This means accepting the fact that different authorities may resolve different issues in different ways; it means turning over to the counselor the responsibility f getting his job done but not specifying how he should do it.

A Statement prepared for publication by a Joint ACES-ASCA Committee, David D. Malcoln and Donald G. Hays, Co-Chairmen.

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Using PPBS To Overcome Taxpayers' Resistance

By ROBERT F. ALIOTO AND J. A. JUNGHERR

Spiraling costs of public education have heightened taxpayer resistance to a level unprecedented in the history of American public education. School districts throughout the country have faced voter rejection of budgets and bond issues. This resistance has not been limited to the public sector. Parochial and private schools also experience considerable difficulty in obtaining adequate financial support.

The defeat of 135 school budgets in New York State this year established a new record.[1] This compares with 76 budget defeats for the 1968-69 school year.[2] Several districts failed to achieve approval of their 1968-69 budgets and were placed on an austerity budget in accordance with New York State education law.

Inflation and teacher militancy are the chief causes of the accelerating rate of education costs. For instance, in the past year consumer prices have increased 6.7 percent.[3] On September 1, 1967, the Taylor Law became effective in New York State, giving a new dimension to educational decision making.[4] This law mandated, for the first time, formal bargaining between representatives of the employee organizations and boards of education. The attainment of legal bargaining power by the employee has resulted in a sharp escalation of demands. Many boards have been forced into settlements much more costly than the old unilaterally determined contracts.

The Pearl River School District was among those districts whose budgets were defeated in 1968. Pearl River is a fairly typical suburban community located in Rockland County approximately 20 miles outside of New York City. In May, 1968, a budget in the amount of $5.088 million was defeated by a 58 percent majority. It would have required a 21 percent increase over the previous year's budget.

This $5.088 million budget was subsequently reduced by $91,700 and resubmitted to the voters in June, 1968. The new budget was defeated by essentially the same margin. Finally, after a still further reduction ($9,225), a budget representing an 18 percent increase over the 1967-68 budget was passed by a 55 percent majority the day after school opened in September, 1968.

These budget defeats created an atmosphere of hostility, negativism, and suspicion between school officials and the public. Many acrimonious statements were made at public meetings. Staff morale was affected. Students began attending board meetings to protest the community's vote on the budget. The administration and Board of Education, working under severe time restrictions, had to rework budgets that normally take six months of preparation. Therefore the full implications of some cuts were not given serious consideration.

In response to the turmoil created by the budget defeats, the board and administrative staff analyzed a number of alternative actions in an attempt to insure that such a situation would not recur. Following this analysis, it was agreed that at least three critical requirements had to be met in order to increase the probability of passage of the 1969-70 budget:

1. Greater community involvement in the budget process.
2. Better explanation of the services to be provided by the tax dollars.
3. More relevant information for decision making on the budget.

The vehicle selected to accommo-

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date these critical requirements was the Planning Programming Budgeting System which was at that point being examined in the district.

The essence of PPBS is the development and presentation of relevant information on certain implications (the costs and benefits) of major alternative courses of action.[5] The system is aimed at assisting management to make better decisions on the allocation of resources to attain organizational objectives. The primary characteristics of PPBS are: 1) identification of the fundamental objectives of the school, 2) establishment of relationships of activities to objectives, 3) consideration of long-range aspects of programs, 4) consideration of all related costs, and 5) systematic analysis of alternatives.[6]

PPBS has the following major phases: 1) *planning*, which is concerned with generating educational goals and objectives; 2) *programming*, which is concerned with the preparation of alternative sets of activities and services to achieve program objectives; 3) *budgeting*, which is involved with the formulation of detailed plans, accounting, and reporting; and 4) *evaluating*, which is concerned with progress outputs and effectiveness of programs.[7]

Development of the major components of a PPBS design for Pearl River was a complex process involving the consideration of many alternatives. For the purposes of this article only major components of the system developed will be outlined, including the program structure, program analysis memorandum, and program accounting system.[8]

Program Structure—The program structure provides the framework within which program analysis is conducted and decisions are made. In Pearl River, due to the recognized fragmentation of educational programs, it was decided to organize the program structure on a K-12 basis. This was done specifically to provide for the articulation and continuity of subject area content. The K-12 subject area structure included all subject areas, with the exception of those which are initiated in the upper grade levels, such as business and foreign language. Twenty separate programs were identified and grouped as follows:

Basic Instructional Services

Program Code	Program Description
60	Language arts, including English and reading
61	Science and health
62	Mathematics
63	Social studies
64	Physical education, intramural and interscholastic athletics
65	Business
66	Foreign language
67	Unified arts, including industrial arts, homemaking, driver education, and mechanical drawing
68	Art
69	Music
70	Special and vocational education

Supporting Educational Services

Program Code	
71	Library services
72	Guidance and psychological services
73	Medical services
74	Adult education and summer school

Other Supporting Services

Program Code	
80	Pupil transportation
81	Operation and maintenance of plant
82	District management
83	Debt service
84	School lunch

Program Analysis Memorandum—The purpose of the program analysis memorandum was to organize in a uniform manner for management review certain information and data on each program, including a statement of objectives, a description of the existing program, an explanation of major deficiencies, and a multi-year budget plan. A separate memorandum for each subject area was prepared by program specialists.

Program Accounting System—A twelve digit coding system was developed to provide financial accounting on a program basis. This coding system, which was computer processed, utilized a format illustrated thus:

Fund	*Program*	*Location*
A0	62	02
General Fund	Mathematics Grade K-12	Evans Park Elementary School

Function	*Object*
220	200
Teaching	Equipment

The coding system adopted provided a number of alternative combinations for presenting financial data. In order to meet the reporting requirements for expenditures to the State Department of Education, traditional function-object data was provided. Total costs were produced on a district-wide basis. The same data were also displayed by building location and subject area in order to provide for a comparison of expenditures.

PPBS had been under study in the Pearl River School District for the past several years and a pilot study had been completed in the area of physical education. In the process, several staff members became familiar with the basic concepts of this new management system. These key staff members were utilized to familiarize the administrative staff with PPBS. Following several meetings it was decided to adopt the system. Department chairmen assumed responsibility for developing the program analysis memoranda for their respective subject areas. Building administrators reviewed the program memoranda and made an addendum to each report giving their assessment and recommendations for revision. The role of the central office staff during this period was to facilitate agreement between department chairmen and building administrators. Where differences of opinion could not be accommodated, it was noted in the report. Program memoranda were submitted for review to the Budget Advisory Committee and then presented to the Board of Education for final action.

During the period when the program memoranda were being prepared, the Board appointed 25 citizens to serve on a Budget Advisory Committee. The committee consisted of a cross section of the community and included some of the most outspoken critics of past budgets. Unlike previous citizen advisory committees, this committee began during the initial stages of budget preparation. During their review of prior years' budgets, the committee repeatedly expressed frustration over the lack of relevance of expenditures to the educational program. It was at this point that PPBS was presented to the Budget Advisory Committee. Initially, there was some apprehension by the committee that the adoption of a new budgeting system might further confuse an already complex area. But there was agreement that PPBS promised more relevant and detailed data. Therefore, the Budget Advisory Committee endorsed the PPBS concept and immediately began developing its plan of action.

Language arts, science, mathematics, physical education, and social studies—representing the largest portion of the budget—were reviewed by the entire committee. Three subcommittees were formed to review the remaining 15 program memoranda. A time schedule was established. Ground rules included the submission of the written program memoranda in advance of oral presentations by department chairmen and building administrators. Each department chairman was responsible for providing the oral presentation for his respective subject area. There was a considerable amount of discussion and debate on the professional staff's analysis of program deficiencies and alternative solutions.

Following a review of all program memoranda, the subcommittees submitted written reports to the entire committee, which in turn began the delicate job of synthesizing the recommendations for a final report. The committee as well as the administration experienced difficulty in comparing prior years' budgets to the PPBS. However, attempts were made to convert prior year budget data to the K-12 program structure in order to provide some comparable data. It should be noted that the framework within which the Budget Advisory Committee operated was determined by the program structure. Materials were presented to the committee by subject area, oral presentations were made for each subject area, and the committee's final report presented recommendations on a K-12 program basis.

The Board of Education received separate written recommendations from both the administration and the Budget Advisory Committee. Both reports, with very few minor exceptions, were comparable, and the board adopted a final budget for presentation to the public. During subsequent public hearings on the budget, the fund of information which had been compiled under the PPBS was utilized in explaining the proposed expenditures. A coalition was formed among members of the staff, the Board of Education, and the Budget Advisory Committee to present the budget to the community. Members of the committee were able to articulate and describe in considerable detail the proposed expenditures in relation to the educational objectives.

The budget vote held on May 7, 1969, resulted in a 67 percent vote in favor of the proposed budget. This represented the greatest margin of "yes" votes in the recent history of school budget elections. This budget represented the first attempt by the Pearl River School District to utilize PPBS. There is considerable need for improvement. The objectives in some cases were not stated in concrete terms. Additional alternatives for achieving program objectives need to be developed. It is evident that more emphasis needs to be placed on long-range planning and the development of evaluative criteria. However, in the minds of the Board of Education and the staff, PPBS proved to be a valuable vehicle in achieving greater community participation and understanding of the budget and provided more relevant data for allocating resources.

It was recognized that PPBS was not the sole factor in securing voter approval of the 1969-70 budget. The fact that the budget was only increased by five percent over last year's budget certainly contributed to its passage. In addition, some voters expressed a willingness to pass any budget in order to avoid a recurrence of the previous year's turmoil. Notwithstanding these factors, the board and administrative staff were convinced that the movement to PPBS was a major factor in obtaining a favorable vote on the budget for the following reasons:

1. Information about specific subject areas and special services was organized and presented in an understandable manner.
2. The objectives of each program were clearly identified.
3. The staff, in setting its priorities, considered the entire program, K-12. They also considered the relationships between subject areas. This resulted in the allocation of resources in line with the agreed-upon district-wide priorities.
4. The services received by the taxpayers were related to specific dollar amounts. The attempt to integrate the financial plan fully with the educational program was recognized by the community.

Harry J. Hartley has stated that "once the public is forced to think in program terms, they will be more reluctant to cut the budget."[2] The experience in Pearl River tends to bear out his hypothesis. In the past the public in Pearl River has

been willing to request lump sum or "across the board" reductions. The PPBS approach has provided information that allows for the identification of the specific services which would be curtailed or lost as a result of reductions in the budget. The public is unwilling to support most reductions once they recognize the specific services to be reduced. The integration of the fiscal plan with the educational program allowed the board and administration to go to the taxpayers with a budget that they felt was educationally defensible as well as fiscally responsible.

As the staff of the Pearl River School District sharpens its capability in the utilization of PPBS, the benefits will increase. More specifically, it is anticipated that once long-range objectives and priorities have been established under PPBS, the district will be able to relate its collective negotiations to the stated organizational objectives. Teacher demands, for example, can be related to the objectives of the school district and this will facilitate the achievement of these objectives. Another dimension of the future utilization of PPBS is management by objectives. This could include some plan to reward staff for the achievement of stated goals. There are many additional uses of PPBS, such as in the area of capital outlay, unification of school districts, reorganization of specialized educational services, and intergovernmental relationships.

As more school districts adopt PPBS, the previously suggested uses will be greatly expanded, for it is a viable system of management. Of all the possible applications of PPBS, one of the most significant is its utilization as a vehicle for organizing and displaying data to overcome taxpayer resistance to school budgets.

[1] *New York State School Board Association Newsletter*, Vol. XI, No. 8, August, 1963.

[2] *School Business Management News* (State Education Department, Albany, N.Y.), August, 1968, line 17.

[3] *U.S. News and World Report*, August 25, 1969, p. 76.

[4] Public Employees Fair Employment Act, Chap. 392, Laws of New York State of 1967.

[5] "What Is PPBS?," State Local Finances Project, George Washington University, p. 1.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

[7] Association of School Business Officials, draft of Educational Resource Management Design Discussed at June, 1968, meeting in Denver, Colorado, Fig. 2.

[8] For additional information on PPBS, see Harry J. Hartley, *Educational Planning Programming Budgeting: A Systems Approach* (N.Y.: Prentice-Hall, 1968); David Novick (ed.), *Program Budgeting* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1965); "Planning-Programming-Budgeting Systems: A Symposium," *Public Administration Review*, December, 1966; and "Planning-Programming-Budgeting System Assessment: Development, Analysis and Criticism," *Public Administration Review*, March/April, 1969.

[9] Harry J. Hartley, speech on "The Mounting Crisis in Financing Public Education," March 17, 1969, Nyack, New York. □

Many Circuses, Little Bread; A School Architect's View Of Our National Priorities

▶ "When an architect does a public school in the city of New York, . . . he cannot afford to specify any interior wall finishes for classrooms or corridors that are much better than green-enamel-paint-on-concrete-block. Why green? Why concrete block? Because green-painted concrete block doesn't show dirt very much, and so the Board of Ed's maintenance costs won't exceed the minuscule budget allocated to maintenance. And why can't they exceed the allowable? Because (among other things) NASA, in its plush headquarters, with its highpriced PR staff and its multi-million-dollar junkets, is turning all the rest of us into paupers.

"When an architect tries to design a great, big, beautiful, and sunny public school window for the Board of Ed, he finds that no New York City Board of Ed windowpane can have a perimeter larger than about 90 inches—i.e., it can't measure more than 15 inches by 30. Why? Because our Board of Ed can't afford to replace bigger windowpanes when they are broken. And why can't the Board of Ed replace bigger windowpanes with available(and cheap) labor? Because we have all been turned into paupers by NASA and, of course, by the Pentagon."

(From an article by Peter Black, New York architect, in *New York* magazine, August 25, 1969)

The Nixon 'Commitment'

▶ "There is no single ideal to which this Administration is more firmly committed than to the enriching of a child's first five years of life, and thus helping lift the poor out of misery at a time when a lift can help the most. Therefore, . . . day-care centers would offer more than custodial care; they would also be devoted to the development of vigorous young minds and bodies. As a further dividend the day-care centers would offer employment to many welfare mothers. . . ."

—President Nixon, [illegible] 1969, [illegible]

Emergency Committee Motto

▶ "Put your money where your mouth is" might well be the motto of the Emergency Committee for Full Funding of Education Programs.

Described by its most prominent congressional opponent, the late Senator Everett M. Dirksen, as "a very effective lobby," the committee is urging Congress and the Administration to cough up the money for already authorized education programs. President Nixon's current education budget is $3.2 billion as against $7.5 billion authorized by Congress.

Represented on the committee are such organizations as the NEA, AFT, AFL-CIO, the Mexican-American Education Association, Steamship Clerks, and the National Farm Union. Charles Lee, former senior staff member of the Senate Education Subcommittee, now serves as lobbyist for the ECFFEP.

Scott Offers Non-Vet 'GI Bill'

▶ A bill which would enable 100,000 youths each year to attend private accredited vocational schools has been introduced by Senator Hugh Scott (R-Pa.). Officially titled the Vocational Education Opportunity Grant Act of 1969, it is called the "New Start Program" by Senator Scott.

The bill grants up to $2,500 per year for two years to jobless poverty-area youths 17 or older, the money to be used for full-time training in accredited private vocational schools of their choice. The grants would be reserved for those who are academically, socially, economically, or culturally disadvantaged and have not completed their secondary education or have not been able to obtain regular employment. It would operate much like the G.I. bills since World War II.

Philadelphia Adopts PPBS

▶ The Philadelphia schools have adopted PPBS in the allocation of resources. In his recommendation to the board, Superintendent Mark R. Shedd said, "The schools and districts will [now] be allocated funds on a formula basis and within program constraints will be free to decide the objects of expenditure with the advice of headquarters staff." On the old basis the headquarters group allocated funds on an object class basis, i.e., teachers, supplies, equipment, etc., and the districts and schools carried out centrally promulgated programs.

SECONDARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAMS FOR THE 70's

ROLES AND FUNCTIONS

Prepared by
Professional Development Committee
Massachusetts School Counselors Association
December, 1969

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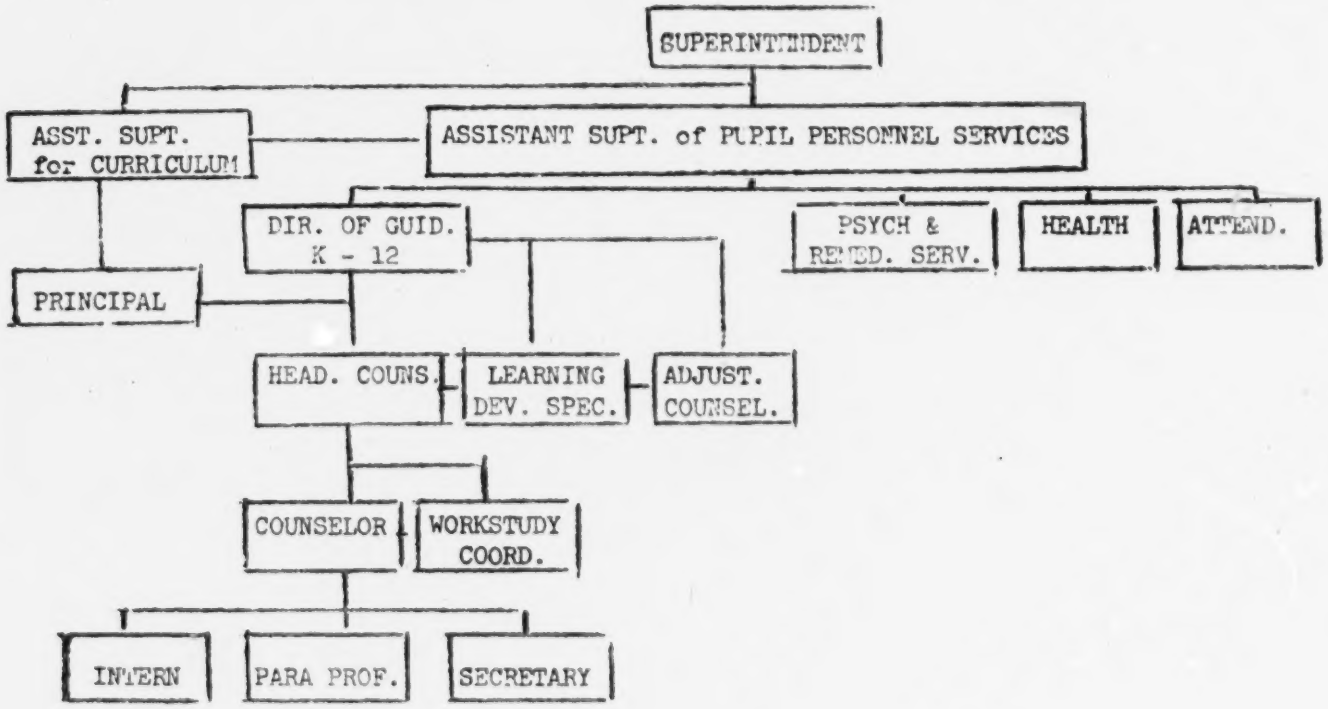
PATTERN OF ORGANIZATION: PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICE



MASSACHUSETTS SCHOOL COUNSELORS ASSOCIATION
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

SECONDARY GUIDANCE PROGRAM FOR THE 70's

Preamble: The purpose of this document is to establish new guidelines in the functioning of a meaningful and effective guidance program in secondary schools. School counselors recognize the need for evaluation of their services to students and the schools they serve, and for modification of the guidance functions to meet changing needs of students, teachers and the community.

The Professional Development Committee of the Massachusetts School Counselors Association, has studied the changing role of the high school counselor for two years. The Committee has used the results of the New England Assessment Study of Guidance Services[1], the report of the Massachusetts Advisory Council on Pupil Personnel Services[2], and other national and local studies which have suggested needed changes in guidance functions. Two additional Committees of the Massachusetts School Counselors Association are preparing specific statements for role and function of Guidance Personnel in elementary schools and junior high schools.

The counseling and guidance movement appears to be at a critical point of reassessment in its short history. We are being asked again and again to define the ideals that permeate our profession. It is to this concern that a new role statement has been prepared. It is the recommendation of the Committee that this serve as a working document but that results of further reaction and study be implemented with all available and judicial speed.

1. The New England Educational Assessment Project, A Survey of Students', Teachers', and Administrators' Awareness of Guidance in Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Vermont, Providence, R. I., June 1969, 1-55.

2. Liddle, Gordon P. and Kroll, Arthur M., Pupil Services for Mass. Schools, Massachusetts Advisory Council on Education, 182.

Assumptions:

1. The guidance program is part of a pupil personnel team and as a member of that team contributes to the total school objectives.

2. Guidance department members must take a more active leadership role than they have in the past in assisting the principal, teachers and the community in meeting the needs of students by finding new ways and methods of accomplishing the objectives of the school.

3. Counselors are concerned with the evaluation of what is actually being done and recommendations for change should be based upon systematic and thorough research rather than change for the sake of change.

4. Counselor educators must seek creative ways in which to train guidance personnel as new roles emerge to meet the needs of students. Counselors in the field must become more actively involved in formal and informal training programs.

5. A multi-lateral staff concept is viewed as providing opportunity for a more effective use of professional and paraprofessional personnel.

6. Role functions listed are not meant to be conclusive but provide an orientation and means of differentiation among roles.

I. Committment

A. Purposes of Education at the secondary school level must be to:

1. Create an environment which provides opportunity for students to experience and to demonstrate responsible behavior as members of a democratic society in the school and in the community. This objective acknowledges and encourages community, student, and faculty involvement in a meaningful way in establishing school curriculum.

2. Respond to changes in society. A democracy by its nature, in order to become stronger, must provide a vehicle which will assist individuals in recognizing changes and adapting to them.

3. Develop an environment which is conducive to recognizing the uniqueness of the individual and the importance of self-awareness and self-fulfillment, regardless of socio-economic status, race, sex, ability, religion and ethnic background. When the individual gains self-realization, he will be better able to contribute to the total growth of other members of society.

4. Provide for all students an opportunity for awareness of the world of work and assist the individual in developing basic skills, attitudes, habits, and decision making processes.

5. Create an environment which will assist the individual to develop skills for learning that last a lifetime. The rapid expansion of knowledge prohibits the school from assuming that there is a static body of information to be acquired.

B. The Counselor Responsibilities to the Purposes of Education:

1. The counselor is in a unique position to contribute to curriculum development. He is also in a position to cooperate with administrators and teachers in the development of methods for individualized learning experiences, enhancing the democratization of American schools.

2. The counselor is one who develops his own identity and one who develops within himself an awareness of contemporary trends inside and outside the school community.
3. The counselor helps students become aware of and develop an ability to make responsible decisions relevant to problems in society.
4. The counselor works with all members of the school staff by providing information, material, and consultive assistance aimed at supporting its efforts to better understand the individuality of each pupil.
5. The counselor assists the community and the home in responding to the things which affect their children perhaps differently than it did them.
6. The counselor assists all students in the development of an awareness of the world of work and in the utilization of community resources to that end.
7. The counselor participates in programs concerned with community mental health, recognizing that he is an integral part of these developing programs.
8. The counselor promotes the introduction of special or pilot projects in the community and in the school which are of a social service nature, such as work-study and underachievers' projects.
9. The counselor demonstrates leadership in the development of programs for the gifted and talented, such as advanced placement, special seminars in all fields, and early admission to college.
10. The counselor helps to foster in students a better understanding of the dignity of work through the acquisition of skills and attitudes, and through participation in volunteer and other work-related programs.
11. The counselor advocates a flexible course of study, permitting alternatives, which result in a meaningful education for each student.

II. Guidance Staff

A. Director of Pupil Personnel Services

This individual is responsible for the organization and administration of the system-wide pupil personnel services which include the various guidance areas, health services -- both physical and mental -- learning-disability specialists, and school attendance personnel. He may be the superintendent, an assistant superintendent, or a separate entity, depending upon the philosophy of the individual school system.

B. Director of Guidance

This person has the responsibility for all guidance functions in the entire school system. He develops with his staff the philosophy for the department and administers the policy that has been accepted by the system. He may be the same individual as the Director of Pupil Personnel Services or a separate entity depending upon the size and structure of the system.

C. Head Counselor

In a system with several counselors at the secondary school level, this individual would be comparable to a chairman of an instructional department. He would normally have a reduced case load for his leadership activities. He is responsible for the coordination and implementation of the predetermined policies and services. Depending upon size and organization of the system, he may also serve as Director of Guidance.

D. School Counselor

This person is the individual who functions directly with the student in the system. He is a generalist who can help his counselees with most of their concerns. Due to the complexity of these concerns, counselors may also function as specialists in such areas as testing, career development, family counseling, scholarship opportunities, research activities, and group dynamics. This activity would be in addition to his usual function as a generalist to his assigned counselees.

E. Learning Development Specialist

This addition to the high school guidance scene is a person who functions as consultant to the total school population. This individual may be involved in human relations, curriculum development, teacher training, inservice training and, as a community liaison worker. He may, also, function in such new roles as a human ecologist, a change agent, which will benefit the high school student and the total school.

F. Work Programs Coordinator

This individual should be responsible for the one or many work programs available in a particular high school setting. The various possibilities are (1) the work-study program which allows the student to work for money during school hours and for school credit; (2) the cooperative program which provides for training in the community in occupational areas not available in the school setting; and, (3) the distributive educational program which enables the student to have experience in the specific areas of retailing and merchandising. These programs offer students the opportunity to test the realities of the world of work and should be available to all students.

G. Intern

There are two levels of experience to which the future counselor should be introduced. The practicum level is to introduce the entire area of guidance and should be accomplished through an observational experience which will lead to an awareness of guidance services.

The internship level is one which provides more in-depth experience. Here the prospective counselor is introduced to the practical applications of his previous learning experiences. It provides an opportunity for the school system and the college training program to explore areas of mutuality and will serve to enhance and improve the quality of future counselors.

H. Paraprofessional

This person is that member of the high school guidance team who through his training and experience offers support to the guidance professional staff. He will, under the school counselor's direction, perform important and necessary related activities that are an integral part of the overall service.

I. Secretary (non-professional)

A person with stenographic skills who would assist all members of the High School Guidance Department. She should be involved in the transmitting of information and in communicating with outside resources.

III. Description of Roles

A. Director of Guidance

The Director of Guidance should be responsible for the general organization and administration of the total guidance program, which would include:

1) Working closely with the school administration to develop and implement the philosophy of guidance services in the high school. (The joint statement by the Association of Counselor Education and Supervision and the American School Counselors Association on "What Administrators Should Expect of and Do for Counselors" and a statement of the Secondary School Principals Association would assist in establishing effective relationships with school administrators.)

2) Organizing and executing the testing program.

3) Selecting and supervising guidance personnel, paraprofessionals and office staff.

4) Reporting to Director of Pupil Personnel Services, School Administrators, School Committee, State Department of Education and the Federal Government.

5) Preparing a guidance budget.

6) Recommending to administration and supporting educational programs that will meet the continuing needs of the school, community and society.

7) Continuously evaluating present guidance programs and staff.

8) Provisions for inservice training courses for staff and encouragement of stuff to attend workshops and conferences for professional growth.

9) Orienting teachers to the guidance program and to effective methods of meeting the needs of their students.

10) Interpreting counseling and guidance services to parents and community by participating in programs of civic organizations and by preparing articles for school and community publications.

11) Conducting research, evaluation and follow-up studies to emphasize areas of success and to determine services in need of special attention.

12) Providing coordination and articulation between schools, including post-high school educational institutions.

B. Head Counselor

Within each building, a Head Counselor would be appointed in a system where there is more than one school building located in separate areas of the community. He would facilitate a more effective organizational structure within the guidance department and with principals and teachers within a particular school building. The Head Counselor:

1) Works withs the administration to implement the philosophy of guidance services in the school.

2) Administers the testing program.

3) Acts as consultant in the selection of and assists in the supervision of high school counselors.

4) Prepares the budget for the building in which he is located.

5) Prepares necessary reports for the Director of Guidance.

6) Recommends to the Director of Guidance supportive educational programs that will meet the needs of the school, community and society.

7) Evaluates the guidance program and the members of the guidance staff.

8) Disseminates pertinent information to the staff.

9) Implements, and facilitates all in-service training courses.

10) Orients teachers to the guidance program and to effective methods of meeting the needs of individual students.

11) Interprets guidance services to parents and to the community by participating in programs of civic organizations and by preparing articles for school and local publications.

12) Conducts follow-up studies and other research pertinent to the guidance program.

13) Implements articulation between the high school and post high school experiences.

C. Counselor

The high school counselor is a professional educator with graduate level training in counseling who, functioning within the pupil personnel framework, is responsible for working with the developmental needs and problems of students.

Through the counseling relationship, the counselor seeks to help each student to understand himself in relation to the world in which he lives; to know himself, his strengths, his weaknesses and to develop an ability to cope with and to solve problems. In accomplishing this goal in the high school environment, the counselor engages in the following activities:

1) He assists the director in the planning, developing, and evaluating of the guidance program.

2) He works with students on an individual and small group basis.

3) He assumes the role of initiator and acts as a consultant in the school's program of pupil appraisal by coordinating the accumulation of meaningful information, and interpreting this to teachers, parents and students.

4) He utilizes modern technology to disseminate educational and vocational information and interacts with students in the decision-making process in relation to future goals.

5) He coordinates the use of services available beyond those he can provide by making appropriate referrals and maintaining a cooperative working relationship with other pupil personnel specialists.

6) He helps parents understand the growth and development of their child by providing and interpreting information which enables them to develop realistic perceptions of his potential and goals.

7) He acts as a consultant to administrators and to teachers, sharing pupil data, identifying pupils with special needs, suggesting materials and procedures for a variety of group guidance experiences, and participating in in-service training programs.

8) He assists in conducting research related to pupil needs by contacting graduates and dropouts, consulting with students and local service agencies, studying occupational trends, comparing scholastic aptitudes with achievement, selecting courses of study and post high school experiences and evaluating the school's counseling and guidance services.

9) He serves the school's program of public relations by participating in community groups and by furnishing information regarding the counseling and guidance programs to the communications media.

10) Relative to the selection of courses of study, he assists students only in the making of decisions which are consistent with their long-range goals.

11) He offers service in areas of adult education to graduates, drop-outs, servicemen and other members of the community.

The counselor must be cognizant of symptoms within the community, the school and the individual student, which suggest possible future problems and develop an effective program of personal and group counseling, which would be preventive in purpose.

Modern technology will provide the counselor with informational resources making him more available to meet individual student needs.

D. Learning Development Specialist

Historically, the guidance and counseling movement has always been concerned with what has been described as the adaptive function-modifying the institution to fit the individuals in it. However, the press of adjustive and information dissemination needs of students has influenced the school counselors to place most of their efforts in these areas neglecting assistance in the areas of curriculum and evaluation reform, student management, community relations, in-service training, parent relations, race relations, student directed learning and teacher-student interaction. The consultant role is an essential function of the guidance staff to assist the school in developing policies and procedures to help each youngster find the school an effective and meaningful place to learn and develop. He is a change agent, a learning catalyst in working with a variety of personnel in the school. Some of the activities would include:

1) Consulting with administrative officials on school management procedures.
2) Holding special in-service sessions for beginning teachers on student management.
3) Assisting in developing local curriculum materials which involve more effective interpersonal relations, i.e., bibliotherapy, character education.

4) Conducting in-service training sessions for teachers with special problem students.

5) Assisting in developing an effective learning climate in schools.

6) Organizing special seminars or conferences on such concerns as drugs, vandalism, student government and race relations.

7) Consulting with individual teachers on student instruction within their classrooms.

8) Working to develop flexibility in learning opportunities provided by courses of study.

9) Developing research and program proposals for external funding relating to guidance functions within the school objectives.

10) Assisting teachers in evaluation techniques which have positive influence on student motivation.

E. Work-Study Coordinator (Career Development Specialist)

The Work-Study Coordinator is a person who is aware of the needs of all students and who is thoroughly aware of the educational, social, occupational and economic environment within which the students will live. He is basically an administrator coordinating the appropriate community agencies and educational facilities which fact makes it possible for any student to develop skills and attitudes for the world of work, to see the relevancy of his school subjects, to explore and test reality of career choices. In cooperation with the total school, guidance development would supply coordinating services, vocational information and counseling expertise to assure greater effectiveness for all students. The major objective would be to integrate career decision-making for all students by involvement, work-study and distributive education programs. Some of the activities would include:

1) Coordinating all school-work-oriented activities

2) Developing uniform procedures and forms for work programs.

3) Describing work-study programs to the community.

4) Coordinating liaison with local employers.

5) Arranging program credit.

6) Holding staff meetings.

7) Initiating career oriented services for classroom teachers.

   a. Speakers bureau

   b. Field trip experiences.

   c. Interview contacts.

8) Assuming responsibility for the operation of the entire program.

F. Interns

Effective and personally meaningful counselor education programs integrate theory and application. On-going and formal relationships need to be established between counselor education programs and field study centers in exemplary guidance departments. Practicum and internship students provide a major means of liaison. An internship position, generally for a second year student, universally described in the state will facilitate internship exchange among counselor education programs. Objectives of internship experience:

1) Active contact with different students - in order to give a greater understanding of the individual.

2) Awareness of different problems of students as well as different theoretical points of view and concomitant techniques to resolve those problems.

3) Demonstration of ability to:

   a. Observe and describe client behavior.

   b. Understand self and dynamics of the counseling process.

   c. Diagnose in behavioral terms students' problems.

   d. Formulate decision-making steps to solve problems.

e. Organize and present case studies of students.

f. Work with teachers, administrators, and parents in assisting individual students to full development of their potential.

g. Work effectively with small groups.

4) Understanding of dynamics of the client-counselor relations, particularly the effect of the personal dimension of the counselor's personality on the client.

5) Understanding the dynamics of the setting of the counseling service and its effect on student behavior.

6) Knowledge of the dynamics of the student environment and ability to work toward adjustments in the environment.

7) Knowledge of total services of guidance department.

G. Paraprofessionals

Studies have shown that approximately 30 per cent of a school counselor's activities are routine and repetitive in nature. In order to attain the objectives of a guidance program, it is important to identify and train a paraprofessional to assume those needed routine tasks and become a member of the guidance team. The paraprofessional person is different from a secretary in the intensity of clerical tasks although it is recognized that some overlap may occur where only one of these personnel is located in the guidance office. The Committee had identified paraprofessional tasks as different from the secretary and strongly supports the introduction of both personnel in the guidance office.

The following assumptions appear relevant:

1) Specific tasks have been identified to prevent ambiguity of role.

2) The paraprofessional works directly for the counselor and does not work for or over clerical personnel.

3) Levels of tasks must be identified so that the paraprofessional recognizes the possibility of moving-up as a paraprofessional. This does not assume that at the top level the paraprofessional may then move into the counselor role, but that within the support role different complexities of tasks are enumerated.

4) Because of the close and unique relationship between the paraprofessional and the counselor, the counselor must be involved in the pre- and in-service training program for the paraprofessional.

5) It is not intended that the counselor's activities as a counselor be reduced by the addition of one or more support personnel to the guidance staff; rather it is intended that support personnel will-- under the direct responsibility of the head counselor-- free guidance staff members from many of the time-consuming, sub-professional details so that this professionals efforts may be directed to a greater depth with the students and his school and community environment.

While specific job description has to be worked out within each school, a sample of activities of the paraprofessional are mentioned below:

1) Administer routine standardized tests to small groups of students who missed the total school test date, or who are transfer students.

2) Check through test results for irregularities as instructed by the counselor.

3) Prepare bulletin board displays.

4) Remove from the information file occupational literature that is out-of-date, and order new material after consultation with the school counselor.

5) Coordinate visits of college representatives and facilitate student and parent contact.

6) Screen cumulative folders for incomplete information.

7) Collect information for a newsletter for parents and students.

8) Plot data for expectancy tables designed by the school counselor.

9) Prepare notices for meetings.

10) Operate audiovisual equipment.

11) Assist the counselor by interpreting to him the community in which the school is located, its language and its customs.

12) Maintain library of professional literature for the counselors and teachers.

13) Act as recorder in a variety of small group discussions or counseling situations under the supervision of the counselor.

14) Inform students how and where to request needed information.

15) Be able to use the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (D.O.T.) and other Guidance Resource materials.

IV. Counselor Education

It is recognized that counselor educators must have opportunity to experiment and develop innovative programs. It is also recognized that researchers on counselor education in the last ten years have made a number of recommendations. These recommendations, experiences of guidance personnel in the field, and the recent Massachusetts School Counselors Associations statement on counselor certification and training support the guidelines in this section. A quality program of counselor education would include the following:

1) Full-time enrollment for one of the two required years of study.

2) Experience as an integral part of training.

3) Interdisciplinary study from such departments as: Anthropology, Sociology, Psychology, Education and Philosophy.

4) A training emphasis that is prevention-oriented rather than crisis-oriented.

5) An exposure to a variety of approaches, techniques and philosophies.

6) A belief in the worth of the individual, regardless of race, socio economic status, educational and job goals, sex and ability. A belief in a democratic society.

7) Responsibility for the screening and selection of counselor trainees, opportunity for trainee self-evaluation periodically, and institutional endorsement for employment.

8) Counselors in the field involved in counselor education.

9) Counselor educators involved in high school counseling.

10) An involvement in teacher training to inform new teachers of the guidance function.

11) A close working relationship with local, state and national counselor organizations for the purpose of recommending programs within the state.

12) Recognition of certification requirements in all states.

13) In-service workshops to keep counselors current and counselor educators aware of what is happening in schools and the local community.

B. Implementation of Guidelines for Counselor Education

1) Example of suggested areas of study to be included in the preparation of professional guidance personnel.

a. Small group counseling and role playing.

b. Confidentiality and legal aspects of counseling.

c. Ethical Standards.

d. Utilization of community resources - clergy, mental health agencies, medical doctors, family counseling, clinics, service groups, industrial and business organizations.

e. School, college, job, armed forces information.

f. Current problems in life education-at present, drugs, sex, black-white relationships, rural, urban and suburban topics.

g. Data processing and audio-visual aids.

h. Adult counseling - parents, drop-outs, veterans, housewives, retirees.

i. Evaluation and research

j. How children learn (slow learner, underachiever, minority, disadvantaged, average, gifted.)

2) A counselor trainee should have experiences in field study centers established in high school and other community settings. These experiences should be an integral part of his training and could be accomplished by alternating and/or supplementing the academic work. A variety of field work assignments could include:

a. Mental health clinics.

b. Judicial agencies.

c. College visitations.

d. Division of Employment Security Office.

e. Educational Research Centers

3. The counselor trainee would be exposed to a variety of techniques, such as client-centered, eclectic and directive counseling; and philosophies such as behaviorism, Gestalt, psychoanalytical and existential, and settings such as small group counseling simulation, and computerized guidance programs.

4. Trainees should be evaluated prior to acceptance into the graduate program and the practicum.

We hope that this study will be influential in the promotion of national unanimity in the development of certification requirements.

V. Working Environment

A. Record Keeping

1) The Guidance Department has certain responsibilities for maintaining records.

2) To be most effective in use of time, money, and energy, the guidance personnel must have paraprofessional and clerical help.

B. The number of clerical and support personnel depends upon community needs, number of counselors and students to be served.

C. Salary-Tenure-Sabbaticals

The school counselor's salary should be based upon the teacher's salary schedule, following tenure laws and sabbatical leaves, and paid on a prorata basis for additional time. Also, counselors should receive a salary differential commensurate with the extra responsibilities and demands of the position. Financial support should be provided for such services as follows:

1) Working two weeks or more beyond the regular school year.

2) Teaching Adult Education and conducting counseling programs in the evenings or on Saturdays.

3) Attending workshops and professional days.

In bargaining for salary the counselors, as members of the Teachers Association, should be represented by the Association and should have a member on the negotiating team.

D. The Director of Guidance should develop and prepare an autonomous budget, and make every effort to utilize title V funds, federal workstudy funds and other federal and state funds. Normal budget categories should be included as well as such items as follows: a sum of money for community public relations, in-service training programs, for conferences and courses to help counselors be aware of current trends, attitudes, and opportunities in work, college and service. The Planning Programming

Budgeting System (PPBS) provides a meaningful way of relating budget items and school and guidance program objectives and is recommended to Directors of Guidance.

E. Student-counselor Ratio -- To make the most effective use of a counselor's time, energy, and skill, he should be assigned an appropriate counselee load. What is an appropriate "load" with the new roles being delineated and paraprofessionals being introduced? Freed from certain specific tasks, the counselor will be able to expend energies in professional activities with students, parents and teachers and help in finding solutions to many human problems. As this role statement is implemented, studies should be made periodically to determine an appropriate student-counselor ratio.

1) A student-counselor ratio of 250-1 or less should be sought. Two hundred to one should be a realistic goal in Massachusetts.

2) The Head Counselor should be considered as an instructional department head and have a counseling load equivalent to the ration of students handled by a department chairman.

3) Directors of Guidance who are responsible for several schools should not have a counselee load, unless they themselves deem it advisable.

F. The Guidance Suite should be an open and attractive area where an optimal degree of acceptance and warmth is communicated to the counselee. This goal necessitates design and equipment considerations. The suite or satellite offices, when spread throughout the school building, are existing primarily for students. Thus, it would facilitate matters if the area, or areas, were accessible and not separate from his immediate school environment. It is quite important that the design be functional to the counseling situation and that the colors chosen be aesthetically pleasing. There should be visual and auditory privacy, consideration for environmental comfort regarding ventilation and climate control and, in general,

this should be an area in which the inegrity of the professional service is is enhanced.

It is quite imperative that the following considerations be given when planning, or implementing the guidance office environment:

1) The adoption of the concept of satellite counseling locations.
2) Adequate counselor paraprofessional office space and appropriate equipment (desk, comfortable chairs, individual telephone services shelving space, table, appropriate perimeter wall design).
3) Student/Parent Reception Area and Educational Vocational Library
   a. Appropriate and comfortable seating facilities for small groups.
   b. Appropriate and functional individual and group study facilities.
   c. Individual electrically wired carrell placements.
   d. Display areas within the school.
   e. Aesthetically pleasing library-type shelving for catalogues and other literature.
4) Secretarial Office
   a. Contiguous to or in the reception area.
   b. Complete equipment considerations (desk, chair, files, duplicator, typewriter and independent telephone service -- capable of jacking into counselor and system communications line).
   c. Adequate storage area for supplies, testing materials and records.
5) Counselor - educator - staff conference area
   A room with a two-way window whereby counselor-supervisor, counselor-counselor, co-counseling, group counseling situations may be viewed from an adjoining room.

Typical Personal Encounter Rating Scale
For
SARGO Simulation Series
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

Ronald H. Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Name of person being rated _____ Date _____
Nature of simulation _____

Directions:

This scale is designed to be used with a simulation series developed for pre-service and in-service training of pupil personnel directors (directors of guidance). One aspect of this Simulated Administration of Regular Guidance Operations (SARGO) consist of the Typical Personal Encounters (TPE). These include a number of role-playing situations such as interviews with administrators, oral presentations to parent groups, in-service sessions for beginning teachers, interviews with concerned citizens, supervisory sessions with counselors, etc. For effective learning, these situations must be evaluated.

The purpose of this scale is to provide constructive feedback to the trainee, on his simulation performance. Raters will generally be co-trainees within the group.

Circle the number most nearly approximating your evaluation of the interaction behavior you observe.

Comments on ways by which the performance may be improved will be especially helpful to the trainee. Be as expansive as necessary for clarity.

The Director's appearance was:

1.	insecure	1	2	3	4	5	confident
2.	tense	1	2	3	4	5	relaxed
3.	cold	1	2	3	4	5	warm

The Director's interaction was:

4.	rambling	1	2	3	4	5	articulate
5.	illogical	1	2	3	4	5	logical
6.	boring	1	2	3	4	5	interesting
7.	ineffective	1	2	3	4	5	effective

Mean Score _____

In what ways might the director improve his performance? _____

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

SARGO #2

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Development of Guidance Service Objectives

Objectives:

To demonstrate ability to develop viable objectives for the guidance service in the hypothetical school situation established in SARGO #1.

To develop and exercise public relations skills via the written and spoken word.

Assignment Due Next Session.

Typical Encounter of the Day -- TED #2

1. Prepare for faculty, administrative and community distribution the first section of the written description of your guidance or pupil personnel services program--The Objectives. You may precede your list of objectives with a brief paragraph of general philosophy or long range objectives. Your objectives will be assessed on their acceptability in meeting the criteria described below.

A clear statement of objectives provides a systematic basis for program development and a channeling of energies and resources to make needed accomplishments. Many in the education field expect all guidance and pupil personnel programs to have the same objectives. This is a mistaken notion which does not recognize the uniqueness of staff personnel, student, faculty and community needs. Viability of objectives is dependent upon meeting local needs.

The process of stating objectives also provides ready opportunity to recognize that all the needs and demands may not be met and priorities must be established. Annually developed objectives help to identify priorities and to focus on different aspects of the program each year. The arrangement of priorities encourages an in-depth investigation and efforts in particular areas where before only superficial attention had been given any one objective. The guidance staff cannot

hope to solve all of the needs it recognizes but only through clearly stated objectives can the department begin to meet many of the prevailing needs.

Objectives which have been developed through consultation with students, teachers, administrators, and parents have a greater chance of being accomplished than those that are simply taken from a textbook or state department of education handbook. The appointment of a guidance or pupil personnel advisory committee by the central administrator containing students, teachers, parents, counselors, and administrators is essential if the objectives developed are to respond to needs, support the objectives of the total school, and gain needed support from the school community.

If your stated objectives are to be of value to you and your staff, it is important that they meet certain criteria. These criteria are as follows:

a. Be specific. Neither one broad objective nor a combination of a number of objectives. An example of a specific process objective might be, "Parent conference for each student in the 8th grade."

b. Relate to the role and objectives of your institutional setting. Objectives must be in harmony with school objectives, otherwise you must try to change the institutional goals or pack your bags.

c. Be limited to accomplishments for a one-year period. It is unrealistic and thwarts evaluation unless a time period is identified.

d. Be stated in measurable terms. An example might be, "Decrease by fifteen percent over last year the number of students who drop out of school in the 11th grade." One objective must recognize and include means of evaluation in measuring the attainment of the objectives.

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2. The following letters were received after your article appeared in the local paper (TED #1). Prepare a brief reply for one of the letters.

A.

Dear Mr. Guidance Director:

I read with interest the article which appeared about you in the Evening Star. You seem very well educated and our community is fortunate to have you. But that is what bothers me. How could anyone as well educated as you not recognize the evil menace that lurks within the guidance and mental health movement. Political control by those who threaten our way of life has been thwarted at the polls and by the law, but now they have sought more subtle ways of gaining influence over the minds of men in the mental health program.

Every day innocent people are being sent to mental institutions to get them out of the way, the federal government is developing tests for national assessment. I could go on and on. There are many examples of the insidious and undemocratic ways in which the enemy is taking over our country without our knowing it. They would like to work on the young people in our schools.

I plan to write letters to the editor of our newspaper and our school committee members unless I can get some assurance from you that you and your guidance program will not be involved in invading the sacred privacy of our homes, giving perverted psychological tests, and destroying our wonderful way of life. I will expect to hear from you in the near future.

Sincerely yours,

George P. Smith

(Reference: Robinson, Donald, "Conspiracy USA," Look, January 26, 1965).

B.

Dear Mr. Guidance Director:

You won't remember me because you were not there when I went through school, but I graduated 10 years ago after spending 12 years in the school system. I now have a good job in Chicago as an electronics technician, no thanks to the guidance counselor who told me my test scores and grades in mathematicsindicated I would never make it in any kind of technical work. But that is not my reason for writing to you -- I've made it in spite of no contact from you guidance people in the last 10 years.

Yesterday I drove by the old high school and everything looked about the same - oh yes the shrubs have grown and there is fresh coats of paint on the football field refreshment stand, and the parking lot was larger. I was curious how the world is changing so fast yet the school hadn't seemed to change at all. So, I went in to see some of my old teachers and see if the school had changed any on the inside - where it really counts.

I was right the first time. There was no change - the same subjects were being offered. Yes, there were many new teachers, but Mr. Ashcraft was still teaching U.S. History 4th hour using the same textbook I had ten years ago. As I walked up the halls listening to what was going on in the classrooms all I could hear were teachers talking. The students were saying very little and then only an obvious question about diagraming a complex sentence. Very few students were in the library. It was so quiet I felt uncomfortable when I talked with Mrs. Wilkinson.

Now I am loyal to my old hometown and its school, if I wasn't I wouldn't be writing this letter to you. The students seemed so bored and passive, as if the world had gone by without them.

My question to you is this. You are supposed to be concerned about kids which I read in the paper. But tell me concretely and not in any of those educational generalizations, what in hell are you doing to bring the schools up-to-date and make it a more exciting place rather than the morgue I visited.

Sincerely yours,

Henry Merryweather, Jr.

Typical Personal Encounter (TPE #2) for next class session.

Persons will be randomly selected from the class to interview either Mr. Smith or Mr. Merryweather who have come to the school to see for themselves what the guidance program intends to do.

CONSPIRACY USA
"Look
Jan. 26, 1965
pp. 30-3

THE FAR RIGHT'S FIGHT AGAINST MENTAL HEALTH

BY DONALD ROBINSON

THE JOHN BIRCH Society's section leader in a well-to-do district of Los Angeles is a friendly, 44-year-old real-estate salesman with a happy laugh. His name is Edward John Golden, and he said right off, "Call me Ed." He called me Donald right off, too, without my ever suggesting it.

I'd heard that Ed was running for the state legislature on an anti-mental-health platform, and I asked him why. At once, his voice changed timbre. "Mental health is alien and Communist-inspired," he snapped.

In Wyoming, the state chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution passed a resolution in 1960 charging that some psychiatrists use "drugs, shock and lobotomy" on persons with "certain ideological beliefs." The chapter demanded that the legislature take action to protect individuals from "needless or wrongful institutionalizing."

In Texas, a tract distributed by the ten thousands stated: "If you are a businessman, a doctor, a lawyer, a teacher, a politician, a minister or in any place of responsibility or authority . . . YOU ARE ON THE COMMUNISTS' LIST FOR REMOVAL AND DESTRUCTION."

[illegible] statements, and their ludicrous comments [illegible] not *be taken seriously, some people have* [illegible] me. But the effects of this nationwide campaign against mental health are not funny. A horde of John Birchers and other members of the Radical Right descended upon the Wisconsin legislature last year, shouting that the mental-health movement in Wisconsin was a subversive plot. They caused the defeat of some 20 mental-health measures that seemed certain of passage.

"We didn't know what hit us," said [illegible] Boullion, executive secretary of the Governor's Mental Health Advisory Committee.

Nor was the campaign laughable in Santa Monica, Calif. When the City Council voted funds to establish a mental-health center to provide out-patient care for mentally sick people, the extremists raised such a furore about Kremlin-directed brainwashing that the frightened Council rescinded its action. Today, in this city of 86,000, there are no facilities to diagnose and treat mentally ill adults who haven't the funds to pay for private care, except for the limited services donated by a little group of psychiatrists at a Roman Catholic hospital.

The campaign of fear is responsible for some tragic deaths, according to Dr. Jack R. Lomas, clinical professor of psychiatry at the UCLA School of Medicine. "I have known a number of mentally sick men and women who were so frightened by anti-mental-health propaganda that they killed themselves rather than accept help from any psychiatrist," he told me.

The Far Right's battle against mental health is being waged through public meetings, billboards, pamphlets, newspaper smears, anonymous phone calls and poison-pen letters. By putting intense pressure on public officials and legislative bodies in more than 30 of the 50 states, extremists have halted or handicapped the fight against mental illness, the nation's No. 1 health problem.

Over 1,575,000 persons were treated in hospitals for mental sicknesses last year. More people with mental illness were in hospitals at any one moment than the combined total of those with cancer, heart trouble, pneumonia and every other killing and crippling disease. And that's only part of the story. On the basis of nationwide studies, the National Association for Mental Health estimates that one out of every ten Americans—19,000,000 people in all—suffers from some sort of mental illness requiring psychiatric treatment.

Facilities for treating these millions are critically short. In all the United States, we have scarcely 1,900 outpatient clinics; we urgently need more than that number. Some of our 600 state mental hospitals are still "snake pits," where 50 percent of the patients receive little or no therapy for their conditions, often just custodial care.

The Radical Right denies that any problem exists. "This 'phony' concern about our so-called declining 'mental health' has been planted by Communist agents, fronters and sympathizers for the purpose of demoralizing the American people and spreading defeatism," Rightist Matt Cvetic charges.

At a 1958 convention, the 11,000-member 17th District of the American Legion's California Department passed a resolution—unanimously—asserting, in part, that: "Certain forces dedicated to the overthrow of our form of government have distorted the magnitude of the problem of mental health out of true proportion."

"A substantial percentage of hospitalized mental patients "are sane individuals." *Know*, a newspaper published by the "Aware Authority" in Pagentitas, Calif., declared. "Many have been kidnapped. . . . Will YOU sit idly by and allow them to be TORTURED and MURDERED?"

We are all threatened with lobotomies done "ice picks." *The Midnight Cry*, a Rightist publication in Florida, echoed. "Once this operation is performed, the brain is damaged beyond repair. . . . The Zombies, the . . . victims can then be used as slaves . . . to commit murder and outrages while the real brains of such crimes remain undetected."

The National Economic Council, a Rightist group in New York, devoted an entire newsletter to accusations that "'Mental Health' is an inaccurate label for what is really a weapon being skillfully used by Communist propagandists to bring about conformity to the Marxist ideology."

Ross Barnes joins the fight

The *D.A.R. Magazine* published a two-part series by Elizabeth Chestnut Barnes, chairman of the D.A.R. National Defense Committee, which stated that "Mental Health is a Marxist weapon. . . ." Mrs. Barnes cited claims—completely false—that 60 per cent of the psychiatrists in the United States are foreigners," "most of them educated in Russia."

To prove Moscow's complicity, the DAR and other Rightist groups are promoting a booklet entitled *Brainwashing—A Synthesis of a Russian Textbook on Psychopolitics*, which includes a talk allegedly given by Lavrenti P. Beria, late head of the Soviet Secret Police, to a class of Americans at Lenin University. Beria is supposed to have given them these instructions: "By psychopolitics create chaos. Leave a nation leaderless. Divide our enemies. . . ." (Psychopolitics has been defined by another Rightist group, Arizonans for Mental Freedom, as "the ultimate instrument of Communism for taking over the free world.")

The textbook contains instruction like this:

"Exercises in sexual attack on patients should be practiced by the psychopolitician to demonstrate the inability of the patient under pain-drug stress to recall the attack, while indoctrinating him for further sexual activity on the part of the patient. . . ."

Absolutely no evidence has been produced to support the assertion that Beria ever made such a speech. Benjamin Mandel, research director of the Senate Internal Security Subcommittee has officially stated: "We have no grounds to believe that the document is genuine."

Bigotry is evident in some of the campaign literature. "Is the 'Mental Health Racket' a Communist-Jewish Front?" asks a typical broadside of the Paul Revere Association of New Orleans.

Roman Catholics and Negroes are also targets for the Rightists. In February, 1961, Brig. Gen. Herbert C. Holdridge, U.S.A. Ret., who heads an organization known as the Constitutional Provisional Government of the United States, sent a letter to the Senate Judiciary Committee insisting that the mental-health practices were controlled by a Roman Catholic cabal. "No one but a Roman Catholic could be so dirty," the General wrote.

The chief subject for the extremists' smears is the National Association for Mental Health, the organization doing the most to fight mental illness in the United States. Founded in 1950, the NAMH has nearly 1,000 local chapters and more

Mrs. Winthrop Rockefeller is the current president. Mrs. A. Felix duPont, Jr., is a former president, Dr. C. H. Hardin Branch, ex-president of the American Psychiatric Association, is a director.

Through its predecessor, the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, the NAMH pioneered the psychiatric-clinic movement and fostered the first full-scale research program in schizophrenia. Three Presidents—Dwight D. Eisenhower, John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson—have hailed the organization's work, and last year the American people contributed $6,500,000 to support it.

The Rightists assert that the NAMH is part of a Russian-type apparatus to brainwash the United States. They maintain that it is somehow linked to the World Health Organization, a UN agency that they falsely say is a front for a Communist scheme to undermine the free world. Actually, the NAMH has no connection with WHO. Membership in WHO is limited to UN governments.

The Rightists particularly castigate the NAMH for belonging to the World Federation for Mental Health, which they claim is another Communist front. The truth is that WFMH is a totally nongovernmental group interested solely in the prevention and cure of mental illness.

While the extremists have not been effective in their attacks on national and international organizations supporting mental health, they have crippled or destroyed a number of local mental-health movements, sometimes by the use of terror. Not long ago, 35 young toughs dressed in black leather jackets and black chino pants marched into a meeting being held in Georgetown, Del., to lay the foundation for a county mental-health chapter. The leader of the pack damned mental health as a Communist device while the others passed out vicious pamphlets. They created such confusion that the drive to establish a mental-health chapter had to be called off for the time being.

The Birchers and their allies were uglier yet in Utah, when a bill was introduced into the legislature in 1961 providing for community health services. As I got the story from Mrs. Jane Thomas, executive director of the State Comprehensive Mental Health Planning Program, the measure had the endorsement of the State Medical Society, the Community Welfare Council and virtually every other professional body. "You'd think that would be enough," she said, "but it wasn't."

A Rightist organization called the Utah Citizens Committee for Constitutional Mental Health declared war on the bill. This group was headed by a Far-Right manufacturer of health foods named Clinton Miller (whose trucks used to bear the engaging slogan, "The Whiter the Bread, the Sooner You're Dead"), and it was backed by such other Right-Wingers as W. Cleon Skousen, former chief of police of Salt Lake City, and Reed Benson, now state coordinator for the John Birch Society.

The mental-health advocates were taken by surprise. A handful of them came to a legislative hearing on time, only to find that hordes of Rightists had arrived an hour early and occupied every seat. The mental-health people had to state their case from the doorway, while the antis flung charges of communism at them.

The bill squeaked through the legislature, but the Rightists got an amendment tagged on, making it a felony punishable by a prison term to give psychiatric treatment to anyone, without the

the clergy. Another successful amendment made it a felony for a physician to give psychiatric treatment to any individual "for the purpose of changing his concept of, belief about or faith in God."

"What do I do if my patient thinks he *is* God?" a Utah psychiatrist asked me.

Tensions were so bitter that a Rightist businessman telephoned the home of Dr. Louis G. Moench, a Salt Lake City psychiatrist, and "screamed at my wife," so Dr. Moench informed me, "demanding that she affirm or deny her belief in the divinity of Jesus Christ, and that she affirm or deny her husband's belief."

"We were rather amused," Dr. Moench says, "because he had called while my wife was preparing her church class lesson, and I was preparing my Sunday-school lesson for the following Sunday."

The Rightists have been particularly successful in Southern California. In the Westchester section of Los Angeles, a number of mental-health advocates joined forces in the summer of 1961 to organize a clinic. Several psychiatrists and social workers led by Dr. Charles Bemis volunteered their services free. No public funds were sought. The group merely asked permission to house the clinic for a few hours a day in an unoccupied health center that the Red Cross and other organizations had been using. "All hell broke loose," said Alexander Pope, a dedicated young lawyer who generaled the mental-health drive.

How the Rightists win their battles

Rightists held indignation meetings protesting the use of a public facility for "a private cause." They wrote letters to the mayor opposing the clinic and circulated petitions against it. They brought in one of the most vehement enemies of mental health, Thomas Sullivan, a John Bircher then employed by the archconservative Coast Federal Savings and Loan Association, to make speeches attacking the mental-health movement.

The Los Angeles City Council ordered an open hearing, and to the horror of the mental-health people, the councilman from their area, E. Timberlake, came out against the clinic. Whereupon the City Council rejected the clinic proposal by a vote of 11 to 0. As a result, the little Westchester clinic now has to pay for quarters in order to offer free care to the mentally ill.

When an effort was made to establish a family service center in the Pacific Palisades section of Los Angeles, Right-Wingers distributed hate sheets, made threatening phone calls and spread rumors against the plan. According to Mrs. Beatrice Sperling, who was present, a nucleus of well-trained extremists pulled the old Communist-party "stalling trick" at a turbulent town meeting convened to consider the matter.

"They wanted to outwait everyone," she said, "so they raised points of order, insisted that the bylaws be read, anything to delay the proceedings. They were hoping that the people in favor of the center would get tired and go home, so they could beat us when it came to a vote." Although the meeting dragged on until 3 a.m., the mental-health advocates stuck it out and won an endorsement of the center. But they really lost. The center became so controversial that they couldn't raise the money to operate it. Local people were afraid to contribute the necessary funds.

In many parts of California, mental-health Rightists bravely. Dr. Harry R. Brickman, director of the Los Angeles County Department of Mental Health, has helped organize a truth squad that goes from meeting to meeting refuting the Rightist charges. A small band of psychiatrists and their wives in west Los Angeles not long ago founded an organization called AIM for Better Community Mental Health and Education that moves into any community where Rightists are trying to block or disrupt a mental-health program. They've nicknamed themselves "The Birchwatchers of America."

In Texas, the Right is at its most vicious. There was picketing in Lubbock solely because a panel of scholars held a symposium on mental health. In Fort Worth, the Patriotic Sons of Texas, Minutewomen and the DAR raised such a hue and cry against a 1960 mental-health fund drive that it took a visit by national mental-health officials, armed with a telegram of endorsement from the White House, to ease the situation.

The most shocking case was in Dallas. In November, 1963, Mrs. Edward Carney came to the city to take over as executive director of the Dallas Association for Mental Health. Born and educated in the South, she is a widow with two children. No sooner was her appointment announced than the extremists started on her. Anonymous callers—brassy-voiced women mostly—rang her telephone through the day and awakened her at all hours of the night. "I hear you're a Red," they said. "Why don't you go home?" And, "You're a Commie. We don't like Commies here." Then they hung up.

Those "friendly" anonymous callers

Sometimes the anonymous callers were pleasant in tone. "We understand that you're a wonderful person. We want to be your friend, so we're telling you. The organization you're working for is run by subversives."

"Well, if you're my friend," Mrs. Carney would say, "why don't you identify yourself?" The callers hung up.

Month after month, this continued. Mrs. Carney went to the FBI, but they said they could do nothing for her. Torrents of poison-pen letters also descended upon the DAMH's board of directors. Mrs. Fred Wiedemann got a letter drawn in red ink threatening her life.

Last May, the DAMH scheduled a fashion show, "Fun D'Mentals," to raise money it desperately needed for its rehabilitation center. Pretty society girls were to model clothes loaned by chic Dallas stores. Immediately, the extremists set out to sabotage the affair. Girls in the show got menacing phone calls, and Jack McLendon, the producer, was warned of violence if he didn't quit. A Rightist went into one elegant store with a list of 100 names. "These are your customers," he said. "If you let your dresses be used in that Commie show, they'll stop buying here." The store withdrew its garments, and so did some of the others.

The only way the show could go on was for the DAMH to state publicly that it wouldn't take any of the proceeds—that it would turn them all over to a children's hospital and a medical school.

When the time came for the DAMH's annual fund-raising drive, many volunteer workers got phone calls demanding that they withdraw. Nearly 700 volunteers dropped out.

Extremists saw a U.S.-built mental hospital in Alaska as a concentration camp for Ike's political opponents

"I know your association is OK," one troubled man said to Mrs. Carney, "but I'm in business and I have to deal with these people, so I don't want any wife representing you." The extremists went so far as to rip down coin-collection boxes bearing pictures of President Kennedy—this in Dallas, where he was slain.

Unfortunately, Dallas was cowering before these Rightists. A ranking officer of the DAMH anxiously tried to dissuade Mrs. Carney from informing the press about attacks on her. "It might inflame the extremists even more," he fretted. When I came to Dallas to investigate the smear campaign, the board of directors insisted that W. Ray Montgomery, a Dallas oilman who is treasurer of the DAMH, be present at any interview I had with Mrs. Carney.

There was no clear-cut condemnation of the extremists from Montgomery. After another board member, James H. Clark, president of the Dallas Museum of Fine Arts, referred to the Birchers as "a lunatic fringe," Montgomery demurred. "They're not a lunatic fringe," he objected. "Some of them are responsible people in other areas. They just aren't informed."

Even the most powerful public figures in Dallas seem intimidated by the Rightists. I telephoned City Hall to ask Mayor J. Erik Jonsson—multimillionaire chairman of Texas Instruments and past president of the omnipotent Dallas Citizens' Council—for a statement condemning the Rightist assault on mental health in his city. The most he consented to say was that "the mental health of our nation is vital." Not a word about the Rightists.

Although Robert Cullum, multimillionaire supermarket owner and president of the Dallas Chamber of Commerce, had been thoroughly briefed, he said, "I am not knowledgeable on the subject, and I have no comment."

I pointed out that I would have to report his refusal to comment.

"You'd better not," he said.

The irony of the situation, as the Dallas *Times-Herald* noted, is that rich Texas "ranks last among the 50 states in per cap ita spending for maintenance of public mental hospitals, and 43rd in the standard of care and treatment of public mental patients." Dallas is one of the few major U.S. cities that still throws its mentally ill people in jail while they are awaiting commitment.

"If Lee Oswald . . had realized he needed psychiatric care," Frank Self, executive director of the Texas Association for Mental Health, said, "in his financial shape there was no place in Dallas he could have gone for it."

The widespread extremist attack on mental health was first set off by the passage of a perfectly innocent bill by Congress in 1956 to finance the construction and operation of a mental hospital in Alaska. The extremists concluded that this was "a plot to establish a concentration camp for political opponents of the Eisenhower Administration!" Mrs. Gene Birkeland, a California housewife, coined a juicy phrase, "Siberia U.S.A.," to describe Alaska, and the Rightists blazoned it across America. It is still used today, though in more than eight years since Congress passed the bill, nobody has been deported to Alaska.

Whetted by the publicity they garnered in the Alaskan fracas, the Rightists jumped upon the Model Draft Act proposed by Federal health agencies as a guide for states in determining their commitment procedures. It was designed to guarantee the mentally ill easier admission to a hospital and at the same time protect them from illegal confinement. The Rightists went up and down the nation, berating the proposed law as a device to incarcerate anti-Communists. Then they tore into the Interstate Compact formulated by the Council of State Governments to provide for the reciprocal admission of patients to state hospitals without regard to their legal residence, and also to treat mental patients in hospitals near relatives or friends. "A ruse to kidnap anti-Communists," the radicals clamored. They have waged such a struggle against this Compact that only 21 states have adopted it so far. The Texas legislature succumbed to pressure and rejected it at the last session.

The leaders of the crusade

A host of Right-Wing groups are now enlisted in the anti-mental-health campaign. Along with the DAR and the John Birch Society, I found such rabble-rousing outfits mixed up in it as the Network of Patriotic Letter Writers, the Elmore County (Ala.) White Citizens Council, the American Flag Committee, H. L. Hunt's Life Lines, the Clarence Manion Forum, the Cardinal Mindszenty Foundation, the American Nazi Party and Gerald L. K. Smith's Christian Nationalist Crusade.

A number of people have made careers out of attacking the mental-health movement. Mrs. Birkeland—the creator of the phrase "Siberia, U.S.A."—has devoted most of her time for the past nine years to the crusade. She has written articles, testified before legislative committees and given speeches before countless women's groups. She has never made any real money out of it, though, she stated to me. She said she even had to pay for the publication of her new book, *Bats in the Belfry*.

"Do you claim that psychiatry is a Jewish plot?" I asked.

"Heavens, no," she answered.

"Then will you disown the Jew-baiting, hate-mongering groups in the anti-mental-health field?"

"I'd rather not," she said after a brief pause. What motivates these extremists?

Some are prompted by desires for profit, personal prestige or plain power. The majority, however, are deadly sincere about their grisly fears of the mental-health movement. They feel psychologically endangered by it.

Dr. Alfred Auerback, a San Francisco psychiatrist who has made a study of the anti-mental-healthers, describes them as "ethnocentric" people, dreading change of any kind. He says they are "nationalistic in thinking, strongly opposed to internationalism in every form. Favoring an authoritarian ideology," he says, they object to psychiatry because it "directs the individual . . . to look critically at himself and at his environment."

Although the various extremist organizations cooperate closely with each other, I could find no trace of any secret Fu Manchu in supreme command of them. They compete with each other for support from the public and for larger sums from the big-money bankrollers of the Radical Right.

"The ultimate victims," says Philip E. Ryan, executive director of the National Association for Mental Health, "are the mentally ill themselves—the most neglected of all our sick people, the people most in need of our sympathy and help." END

5.
8.

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

SARGO #3

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Interaction With Parents

Objectives:

To demonstrate skills in preparing and presenting information via different methods and media.

To demonstrate interaction skills.

Assignment Due Next Session.

Typical Encounter of the Day

1. The PTA is meeting next week. The Superintendent of Schools wants to introduce you and wants you to speak for approximately ten minutes about your guidance program: what it is, and what it should do for the children in the schools. Your presentation should hold their interest and should be informative. The presentation will be either a demonstration, a case study, or a lecture. The class will be divided, either voluntarily or by arbitrary random selection, into thirds so that each format will receive approximately equal representation.

Formats

Demonstration. This will consist of organizational and flow charts, and handouts (if feasible), or may be in the form of a chalk talk. A certain amount of verbal explanation necessarily will be a function of this format. Arrangements may be made for use of overhead projectors or slide projectors, if sufficient advance notice is received by the instructor.

Case Study. This will illustrate how and when your guidance services are utilized to deal with the problems of a specific student. You will be required to hypothesize a student in an anomalous and adverse school situation. You will be expected to indicate all resources, either within the school or external, used to effect a solution of the student's problems. Diagnosis and prognosis will be required.

Lecture. This will consist of a ten minute speech, wherein you describe your guidance services as fully as possible.

Please include staff information, services provided, external resource agencies referred to, and population dealt with. Be as comprehensive as possible within the established time limitations.

2. Be prepared to answer field questions from the parents. Some possible questions might be:

(1) What is this school's dress code? Who devised it? Who enforces it?

(2) Does this school have a drug problem? What is being done about drug education?

(3) Will you ask our children personal questions about their homes?

(4) What is your position on sex education in the schools?

(5) To what extent and with whom do you share information obtained during counseling sessions?

(6) You put our children in slots. How do you decide which slot a child belongs in?

(7) What psychological tests are included in your testing program? Why?

(8) Why do our children need guidance - I didn't have it when I was in school.

(9) How come more of our children don't enter college? What are you doing to help them?

(10) Are you involving our children in sensitivity groups? What is so wonderful about them, anyway?

3. Typical Personal Encounter for Next Class Session.

Persons will be selected randomly to make their presentations to the PTA. Each format will be represented in a TPE. Other members of the class will play the roles of parents. They may also be asked to respond to specific questions.

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The Counselor as a Public Relations Man

by Ron Swanson, Guidance Director
Fergus County, (Lewistown, Montana)
High School

When a school administrator begins to look for someone on his staff to represent the school system to the community, he looks for a person who has information about curriculum and educational policies of the school system: someone who can speak for the school system as a whole, not merely one specific subject area, and who knows what is being done by the products of this school system.

Do schools have such a person available? Check the counseling department. The counselor is the logical one to assume the job. Because of his involvement in such tasks as curriculum revision, follow-up studies, and scheduling, he can speak on the many facets of education with some knowledge.

Opportunity and Responsibility

Making use of publicity: Before you start muttering, "Swell! Here's another way to take some time from my counseling duties," it would be well to examine this new job to see whether it might not provide another way to help you in your counseling. If you can enlist community, parents, and school personnel in your campaign to be of service to the students by use of a little publicity, time spent in public relations would be well spent.

NOTE: Normally, we do not find this "logical" choice, the school counselor, serving as speaker for the system, and all too often we find that the counselor has not even done an adequate job of letting the public know who and what he is.

Informing the public: Counselors, like most specialists, get the impression that everyone is a familiar with their work as they themselves. This may not be the case even among faculty members at the same school. A significant number of people do not know what a guidance counselor is and what he does. This situation is not due to lack of interest, but to the fact that guidance counseling is a relatively new field in education. Someone must do the explaining, and the guidance counselor is the one to do it.

As the counselor justifies his own existence, he can do a fine job of public relations for the entire system. Though young counselors may have difficulty in believing that the parents of their counselees are not acquainted with counseling as part of the educational system in the school, they should remember that those who are 40 years of age or older never encountered a guidance counselor when they were in grades 1 through 12.

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The counselor who spends his time helping a child select the proper courses from a wide variety available, meet college requirements, or gain entrance into trade schools or apprentice programs, was not in evidence when education was on a "one-track" system 30 years ago and a small minority of each class went to college. Those were the days when the unskilled laborer still had a chance on the labor market. The counselor who spends his time explaining test results to a student may not have been needed 30 years ago when standardized tests were rarely given (and, if they were, the results were diligently guarded from student and parent). As these people did not seem necessary some time ago, we owe some explanation for their presence now.

Accepting responsibility: Consider, too, that the role of public relations man for the school system is part of the counselor's job. In a pamphlet entitled *The Role of the Secondary School Counselor*, published by the American School Counselor Association, there is a section called "The school counselor—what he does." Item number 10 in this section states:

> 10. He carries out a program of public relations by:
> - participating in programs of various community groups.
> - furnishing information regarding the counseling and guidance programs to local publishers, radio, and TV stations.

Clearly, the American School Counselor Association recognizes the responsibility of the counselor in the area of public relations. While the pamphlet does not explain this role fully, it leaves no doubt that public relations is a matter of counselor concern.

Carrying Out the Task

The problem arises as to how best to carry out the public relations task that should be assigned to the counselor. How can he get to the leaders in the community, the general public, parents, and other faculty members to explain all of the workings of his department?

The personal approach: The personal approach is the most effective public relations tool. What could be more interesting than a well-prepared program on the local school system, stressing such things as innovations in education being attempted by the schools, accomplishments of local educators and students, or the needs of the school system? Needless to say, one of

the prime topics should be the function and operation of the school guidance department. A counselor talking about his own program and life's work to a captive audience should be most effective.

Civic clubs: Local organizations such as Lions International, Kiwanis, and Rotary are ever on the alert to enlist educators in their work and always striving to present interesting programs to their membership at meetings. These civic clubs can be used as our open door.

In addition to service organizations, don't overlook the Chamber of Commerce, Junior Chamber, Civitans, Business and Professional Women, fraternal organizations, PTA's (Harper Valley PTA included), and a host of other organizations which house the leaders of your community. If the counselor is not a member of an organization, a call to its program chairman is sure to put him on the agenda at an early date. Everyone is, or should be, interested in how the school system as a whole is meeting the demands of space-age education.

Topics: A counselor, by analyzing follow-up data on graduates and grade reports from colleges, can give a good presentation summarizing how the local educational product is faring. High test results, scholarship winners, and excellence in debate, drama, athletics, etc., make interesting topics and are well calculated to stir up civic pride in the school system.

If you can arrange to make your presentation to one such club and do the job you are capable of, with enthusiasm, you should have no difficulty getting invitations to speak to other groups. If the invitations don't come . . . push a little!

News releases: News releases to the newspaper, radio, and TV media are another effective means of informing the public. Some effort must be made to establish a central news release agency for the school to be sure that each newsworthy events gets recognition and to avoid duplication of releases. If you are on the ball when the time comes to notify the news media about impending school events of community interest, you will find cooperation when the time comes to request publicity for a pet project.

Most press and radio releases concerning student achievements and awards should originate from the guidance office, since the counselor has most likely been in on the process of obtaining scholarships and awards from the beginning and will know the details and the material to release. If the representatives of all the news media become accustomed to receiving their releases from the same source, a working relationship is much easier to establish. The counselor, therefore, should be willing to assume the extra duty of working up news releases that have to do with his program and which could serve as an incentive to other students to work toward such a goal.

Open letters: Another useful public relations technique is the school-printed, take-home pamphlet. Here is an example of the one used at Fergus County High School in Lewistown, Montana.

Fergus County (Lewistown, Montana) High School

Dear Parents,

Would you be interested in learning more about:

1. **Your child's test results?**
2. **Graduation requirements from FCHS?**
3. **College entrance requirements?**
4. **Trade and vocational schools?**
5. **Scholarships and loans available?**
6. **Your child, his choice of vocation, and chances for success?**
7. **Your child and his progress in high school?**

If so, feel free to contact the Fergus County High School Guidance Department. Phone 538-8431.

Ron Swanson, Counselor
Alene Bergon, Counselor

This type of open letter to parents is an interest stimulator and, at the same time, serves to outline some of the functions of the guidance department to parents. These letters can be placed into the envelope with the student's report card. If you feel that some students would prefer that their parents and the guidance department never get together, however, the letter should be mailed to insure delivery. An invitation to discuss something as important as the future of their children is almost impossible for parents to pass up.

Follow-up: Once the invitation has been extended, scheduling a definite conference time for meeting with the parents is the next step. Be sure to follow up on your letter and meet with the parents at the earliest opportunity. Opening the door to this kind of parent-counselor relationship could be the best thing that ever happened to your department.

For many parents, this meeting with the guidance counselor will be the first contact with the school which is not highly structured. They have been to parent-teacher conferences at grading time, but now they are involved in an informal visitation talking to someone who knows a great deal about their child and wants to learn more about him to help this student fulfill his potentialities. By sharing information about the student, both parent and counselor gain a better understanding of him. Here is an opportunity to show parents how the entire school system is geared to provide service and high-quality education to their children.

Speaking Out

What I am advocating is that counselors speak out, come out of their offices, spread the word, and do what is necessary to make important people aware of the serv-

Continued on next page . . .

Public Relations Man—Cont'd.

ices of the guidance department. These are the important people:

- First, the students . . . Make students aware of your services and encourage them to make use of them.
- Second, the parents . . . Inform parents of what you are doing and trying to do for their children.
- Third, the community . . . Let the community know what is being done in the school system they support financially; what the achievements of this system and the individuals within it have been. Let them know that not all teenagers are "beat" or "hip."
- Last, but certainly not least, the faculty . . . Let the faculty know how you can be of service to them and how they can help you do your job. The classroom teacher is the closest one to the student and can help in identifying students who should avail themselves of your services. Make the faculty guidance committee in your school an active committee.

Praise: Make more information available on the clean-cut, intelligent, mature high school student who constitutes the bulk of our population. The fine athletes, scholarship winners, citizenship award candidates, debate teams, and all of the others we are justly proud of, deserve mention on page one. The counselor can and should help see that they get the recognition they deserve.

Uniting efforts: Once the counselor has done his public relations job, and the community is aware of the services offered by his department, he will find that counselor-parent conferences do not necessarily come about as a result of pupil-school crises. Parents will actively seek the counselor's help for information on colleges, financial aids of all types, jobs (part- or full-time), and for an assessment of the abilities of their children. Good public relations can create an ideal union of counselor, student, and parent.

Mexican-American—Cont'd.

- We must see that testing instruments are developed that will accurately measure the intelligence and achievement potential of the Mexican-American child.
- We must promote programs to assist state legislatures in taking the necessary action to permit instruction in languages other than English.
- We must help the various states to recognize the need for statewide programs in bilingual education.
- We must provide assistance through federal funds to Mexican-American students in pursuit of a college education.
- With the leadership of the federal government, we must increase the adult basic education and vocational programs, to equip the Mexican-American adult with skills and knowledge necessary to become a partner in our economic society.
- We must encourage parental-involvement programs at the state and local levels.
- We must encourage state and local education agencies to use more effectively the Mexican-American personnel on their staffs.
- We must foster a joint effort of the federal government and private enterprise to produce instructional materials that are designed expressly for Mexican-American students.

APGA Film Festival Seeking Student Films

The 1970 New Orleans Convention Committee has begun preparation for the annual APGA Film Festival, which will run in conjunction with the Convention, March 23-26. Films produced by students are being solicited for this year's Film Festival; Laurabeth Hicks, Film Festival Coordinator, will be receiving these for review until the first week in October. The committee would like to receive works pertaining to the helping professions produced by young filmmakers.

Films are a major art form of this century, and many of our creative young people are "doing their thing" in this medium. You can help put them on to the Film Festival.

All films or filmstrips sent for review should be accompanied by a $10 previewing fee and should be addressed to *Laurabeth H. Hicks, 1970 Film Festival Coordinator, Box 9349, Southern University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70813.*

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University of Massachusetts

SARGO #4

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Development of a Test Program

Objectives:

To develop a test program consistent to your school situation and your guidance service objectives.

To interact with teachers, administrators, and counselors.

Assignment Due Next Session

- Typical Encounter of the Day

1. An important function of the guidance program is the development, selection, administration, use, and evaluation of a system-wide standardized testing program. A new program may have to be modified to meet contemporary needs, i.e., disadvantaged students, special language problems, learning disabilities, rural or urban students.

Develop a brief description of your testing program, following the suggested outline below:

(1) Purpose of testing program.

(2) Selection of tests.

(3) Administration of tests.
Include when during school year, for what grade, scoring, etc.

(4) Dissemination of results.
Recording of test performances, interpretation of results, etc.

(5) Evaluation of program.
Follow-up, research studies, etc.

It is recommended that you consult appropriate texts and references. A number of suggestions are listed below:

Buros, Oskar K, Mental Measurements Yearbooks (1 through 6) Highland Park, New Jersey, Gryphon Press.

Cronbach, Lee J., Essentials of Psychological Testing, New York, Harper, 1961.

Goldman, Leo, Using Tests in Counseling, New York, Apleton-Century-Crofts, 1961.

2. There will be two types of encounters:

(1) One in which the director will work with an advisory committee from the school system and community in developing the purposes of the testing program. This advisory committee will consist of an administrator, teacher, psychologist, parent, and counselor.

(2) The second encounter will be with a group representing all members of the faculty and administration. Having formulated a system-wide testing program, a guidance director will be asked to present his program. The advisory committee with which he worked will sit with him as a supportive panel. The committee will assist the director in responding to audience questions.

3. Typical of questions that may have to be responded to are:

(1) When will we get last year's test scores?

(2) What personality tests are being used this year, and why?

(3) How much will this program cost?

(4) How much extra work for the teachers do these tests represent?

(5) What norms do you plan to use with these tests?

(6) What are the reliability and/or validity data about X test?

(7) Will scales or tests be used whose items question the authority of the teacher?

(8) Why do we have to label kids with test scores?

(9) Are interest inventories really necessary?

(10) Will these tests be used to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching?

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

SARGO #5

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Consultation With Teachers

Objectives:

It is a truism that without understanding and cooperation from teachers a director of guidance would find it extremely difficult to achieve the goals he has set for his program. It may also be said that without the aid of an effective guidance program the classroom teacher may find it equally difficult to reach his objectives.

This simulation views guidance personnel as resource aids in several areas.

1. Interpret and evaluate test performances to teachers.
2. Assist teachers in the establishment of optimal learning conditions for students.
3. Accept referrals from teachers of individuals or groups having personal, educational, or vocational problems or questions.
4. Act as resource person on child and adolescent development.
5. Work in a supportive role with teachers (especially beginning teachers) on questions of professional identity and personal competence.
6. Advise the administration on policies concerning personnel and communications procedures among staff members.
7. Aid the classroom teacher to become more sensitive and receptive to a wider variety of student feelings and behaviors.
8. Aid the classroom teacher to develop self-awareness of his own feelings and behaviors.

Two problems are presented in this simulation which relate to the services provided by guidance pasonnel to both teachers and administrators. These situations are not meant to be totally representative of these services but serve to highlight the kinds of problems encountered in schools today, and the depth of knowledge and skill needed to work effectively with teachers.

Typical Encounter of the Day #1

The following article, Students Are Niggers, has recently been circulated by an underground press that has emerged in your school. Reactions range from outrage to acceptance, indignation to tolerance. You have been requested to assess your position on the two issues; an underground press, and the article in question. Determine your position; then put it in writing, justifying that position with reference to your official status as guidance director.

Typical Personal Encounter of the Day #1

Present your position (read it or declaim it) to the assembled faculty and administration of your school. Your next task is to moderate the ensuing debate from the floor.

Typical Encounter of the Day #2

A group of beginning teachers has formed a small seminar to deal with personal and professional questions. You have encouraged individual teachers to participate in such a group, and have asked the principal and superintendent to support it. These teachers have asked you to come and speak with them about what we know for sure about learning, from research. They want to implement these findings in their classrooms.

The attached reprint of Watson's article What Do We Know About Learning? may serve as an initial source for you. It is suggested you settle on one aspect, or recent finding of importance to education. Prepare a ten minute presentation concerning that finding.

Typical Personal Encounter of the Day #2

Read or orate your presentation to the faculty-administration group earlier assembled in protest against the underground press. Be prepared to defend yourself in the event of questions from the floor.

Suggested Bibliography:

Gage, N.L. (ed) Handbook of Research on Teaching, Chicago, Rand McNally, 1963.

Mindal, M. Toby, "The Role of the Guidance Specialist in the In-service Education of Teachers," Personnel & Guidance Journal, 45, March 1967, pp 692-696.

National Education Association's Series on "What Research Says to the Teacher."

5

L.A. Free Press
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STUDENTS ARE NIGGERS

Students are niggers. When you get that straight, our schools begin to make sense. It's more important, though, to understand why they're niggers. If we follow that question seriously enough, it will lead us past the zone of academic bullshit, where educated teachers pass their knowledge onto a new generation, and into the nitty-gritty of human needs and hang-ups. And from there we can go on to consider whether it might ever be possible for students to come up from slavery.

First, let's see what's happening now. Let's look at the role students play in what we like to call education.

At Cal State L.A., where I teach, the students have separate and unequal dining facilities. If I take them into the faculty room, my colleagues get uncomfortable, as though there were a bad smell. If I eat in the student cafeteria, I become known as the educational equivalent of a nigger-lover. In at least one building, there are even rest rooms which students may not use. At Cal State, also, there is an unwritten law barring student/faculty love-making. Fortunately, this anti-miscegenation law, like its Southern counterpart, is not 100 percent effective.

Students at Cal State are politically disenfranchised. They are in an academic Lowndes County. Most of them can vote in national elections--their average age is about 26--but they have no voice in the decisions which affect their academic lives. The students are, it is true, allowed to have a toy government of their own. It is a government run for the most part by Uncle Toms and concerned principally with trivia. The faculty and administration decide what courses will be offered; the students get to choose their own Homecoming Queen. Occasionally, when student leaders get uppity and rebellious, they're either ignored, put off with trivial concessions, or maneuvered expertly out of position.

A student at Cal State is expected to know his place. He calls a faculty member "Sir" or "Doctor" or "Professor" and he smiles and shuffles some as he stands outside the professor's office waiting for permission to enter. The faculty tell him what courses to take (in my department, English, even electives have to be approved by a faculty member); they tell him what to read, what to write, and frequently, where to set the margins on his typewriter. They tell him what's true and what isn't. Some teachers insist that they encourage dissent but they're almost always jiving and every student knows it. Tell the man what he wants to hear or he'll fail your ass out of the course.

When a teacher says, "Jump", students jump. I know of one professor who refused to take up class time for exams and required students to show up for tests at 6:30 in the morning. And they did, by God! Another, at exam time, provides answer cards to be filled out--each one enclosed in a paper bag with a hole cut in the top to see through. Students stick their writing hands in the bags while taking the test. The teacher isn't a provo; I wish he were. He does it to prevent cheating. Another colleague once caught a student reading during one of his lectures and threw her book against the wall. Still another lectures his students into stupor and then screams at them in a rage when they fall asleep.

Just last week, during the first meeting of a class one girl got up to leave after ten minutes had gone by. The teacher rushed over, grabbed her by the arm, saying "This class is NOT dismissed!" and led her back to her seat. On the same day another teacher began by informing his class that he does not like beards, mustaches, long hair on boys, or capri pants on girls, and will not tolerate any of these in his class. The class incidently, consisted mostly of high school teachers.

Even more discouraging than this Auschwitz approach to education is the fact that the student takes it. They haven't gone through twelve years of public school for nothing. They've learned one thing and perhaps only one thing during those twelve years. They've forgotten their algebra. They're hopelessly vague about chemistry and physics. They've grown to fear and resent literature. They write like they've been lobotomized. But Jesus, can they follow orders! Freshmen come up to me with an essay and ask if I want it folded and whether their names should be in the upper right hand corner. And I want to cry and kiss them and caress their poor tortured heads

TWO TRUTHS

Students don't ask that orders make sense. They give up expecting things to make sense long before they leave elementary school. Early we all learn to accept "two truths", as did certain medieval churchmen. Outside of class, things are true to your tongue, your fingers, your stomach, your heart. Inside class things are true by reason of authority. And that's just fine because you don't care anyway. Miss Wiedmeyer tells you a noun is a person, place or thing. So let it be. You don't give a rat's ass; she doesn't give a rat's ass.

The important thing is to please her. Back in kindergarten, you found out that teachers only love children who stand in straight lines. And that's where it's been ever since.

What school amounts to, then, for white and black kids alike, is a 12-year course in how to be slaves. What else could explain what I see in a freshman class? They've got the slave mentality; obliging and ingratiating on the surface but hostile and resistant underneath.

As do black slaves, students vary in their awareness of what's going on. Some recognize their own put-on for what it is and even let their rebellion break through to the surface now and then. Others--including most of the "good students"--have been more deeply brainwashed. They swallow the bullshit with greedy mouths. They're pathetically eager to be pushed around. They're like those greyheaded house niggers you can still find in the South who don't see what all the fuss is about because Mr. Charlie "treats us so good."

"TOMS" FAVORED

College entrance requirements tend to favor the Toms and screen out the rebels. Not entirely, of course. Some students at Cal State L.A. are expert con artists who know perfectly well what's happening. They want the degree or the 2-S and spend their years on the old plantation alternately laughing and cursing as they play the game. If their egos are strong, they cheat a lot. And, of course, even the Toms are angry down deep somewhere. But it comes out in passive rather than active aggression. They are unexplainably thick witted and subject to frequent spells of laziness. They misread simple questions. They spend their nights mechanically outlining history chapters while meticulously failing to comprehend a word of what is in front of them. The saddest cases among them are the ones who have so thoroughly introjected their masters' values that their anger is all turned inward. At Cal State these are the kids for whom every low grade is torture, who stammer and shake when they speak to a professor, who go through an emotional crisis every time they are called upon during class.

You can recognize them easily at finals times. Their faces are festooned with fresh pimples, their bowels boil audibly across the room. If there is really a Last Judgment, the parents and teachers who created these wrecks are going to burn in hell.

So students are niggers. It's time to find out why, and to do this, we have to take a long look at Mr. Charlie.

TIMID TEACHERS

The teachers I know best are college professors. Outside the classroom and taken as a group, their most striking characteristic is timidity. They're short on balls.

Just look at their working conditions. At a time when even migrant workers have begun to fight and win, college professors are still afraid to make more than a token effort to improve on their pitiful economic status. In California state colleges the faculties are screwed regularly and vigorously by the Governor and Legislature and yet they still won't offer any solid resistance. They lie flat on their stomachs with their pants down, mumbling catch phrases like "professional dignity" and "meaningful dialogue."

Professors were no different when I was an undergraduate at UCLA during the McCarthy era; it was like a cattle stampede as they rushed to cop out. And in more recent years, I found that my being arrested in sit-ins brought from my colleagues not so much approval or condemnation as open-mouthed astonishment. "You could lose your job!"

VIETNAM WAR

Now, of course, there's the Vietnamese War. It gets some opposition from a few teachers, some support it. But a vast majority of professors who know perfectly well what's happening are copping out again. And in the high schools, you can forget it. Stillness reigns.

I'm not sure why teachers are so chicken shit. It could be that academic training itself forces a split between thought and action. It might also be that the tenured security of a teaching job attracts timid persons and, furthermore, that teaching, like police work, pulls in persons who are unsure of themselves and need weapons and other external trappings of authority.

At any rate teachers ARE short on balls. And, as Judy Eisenstein has eloquently pointed out, the classroom offers an artificial and protected environment in which they can exercise their will to power. Your neighbors may drive a better car; gas station attendants may intimidate you; your wife may dominate you; the State Legislature may shit on you; but in the classroom, by God, students do what you say -- or else. The grade is a hell of a weapon. It may not rest on your hip, potent and rigid like a cop's gun, but in the long run it's more powerful. At your present whim -- and time you choose -- you can keep 35 students up for nights and have the pleasure of seeing them walk into the classroom pasty-faced and red-eyed carrying a sheaf of typewritten pages, with title page, MLA footnotes and margins set at 15 and 91.

The general timidity which causes teachers to make niggers of their students usually includes a more specific fear--fear of the students themselves. After all, students are different, just like black people. You stand exposed in front of them, knowing that their interests, their values and their language are different from yours. To make matters worse, you may suspect that you yourself are not the most engaging of persons. What then can protect you from their ridicule and scorn? Respect for authority. That's what. It's the policeman's gun again. The white bwana's pith helmet. So you flaunt that authority. You wither whisperers with a murderous glance. You crush objectors with erudition and heavy irony. And, worst of all, you make your own attainments seem not accessible, but awesomely remote. You conceal your massive ignorance--and parade a slender learning.

You might also want to keep in mind that he was a nigger once himself and has never gotten over it. And there are more causes, some of which are better described in sociological than psychological terms. Work them out, it's not hard. But in the meantime, what we've got on our hands is a whole lot of niggers.

And what makes this particularly grim is that the student has less chance than the Black man to get out of his bag. . . because the student doesn't even know he's in it. That, more or less, is what's happening in higher education, and the results are staggering.

LITTLE EDUCATION

For one thing, damn little education takes place in the schools. How could it? You can't educate slaves; you can only train them. Or, to use an even uglier word, you can only program them.

Educational oppression is trickier to fight than racial oppression. If you're a Black rebel, they can't exile you; they either have to intimidate you or kill you. But in high school or college, they can just bounce you out of the fold. And they do. Rebel students and renegade faculty members get smothered or shot down with devastating accuracy. In high school, it's usually the student who gets it; in college, it's more often the teacher. Others get tired of fighting and voluntarily leave the system. This may be a mistaken thought. Dropping out of college, for a rebel, is a little like going North for a Black. You can't really get away from it, so you might as well stay and raise hell.

FACING THE FACTS

How do you raise hell? That's another article. But just for a start, why not stay with the analogy? What have Black people done? They have, first of all faced the fact of their slavery. They've stopped kidding themselves about an eventual reward in the Great Watermelon Patch In The Sky. They've organized: they've decided to get freedom now, and they've started talking it.

Students, like Blacks, have immense unused power. They could, theoretically, insist on participating in their own education. They could make academic freedom bilateral. They could teach their teachers to thrive on love and admiration, rather than fear and respect, and could teach them to lay down their weapons. Students could discover community. And they could learn to dance by dancing on the IBM cards. They could make coloring books out of the catalog, and they could put the grading system in a museum. They could raze one set of walls and let life come into the classroom. They could raze another set of walls and let education flow out and flood the streets. They could turn the classroom into where it's at--a "field of action", as Peter Marin describes it. And, believe it or not, they could study eagerly and learn prodigiously for the best of all possible reasons--their own reasons.

They could, theoretically, they have the power. But in only a very few places, like Berkeley, have they even begun to think about using it.

* * *

The above article is printed here uncensored, as it was in the Sun-Reporter of January 20, 1968, at the author's request. The author, Gerald Farber, is an English professor at Cal State Los Angeles.

WHAT DO WE KNOW ABOUT LEARNING?

Goodwin Watson, Professor of Social Psychology and Education (on leave), Teachers College, Columbia University; now Distinguished Professor, Newark State College, Union, New Jersey.

What do we really know today about learning? Although no scientific "truths" are established beyond the possibility of revision, knowledgeable psychologists generally agree on a number of propositions about learning which are important for education. The educator who bases his program on the propositions presented below is entitled, therefore, to feel that he is on solid psychological ground and not on shifting sands.

Behaviors which are rewarded (reinforced) are more likely to recur.

This most fundamental law of learning has been demonstrated in literally thousands of experiments. It seems to hold for every sort of animal from earthworms to highly intelligent adults. The behavior most likely to emerge in any situation is that which the subject found successful or satisfying previously in a similar situation. No other variable affects learning so powerfully. The best-planned learning provides for a steady, cumulative sequence of successful behaviors.

Reward (reinforcement), to be most effective in learning, must follow almost immediately after the desired behavior and be clearly connected with that behavior in the mind of the learner.

The simple word, "Right," coming directly after a given response, will have more influence on learning than any big reward which comes much later or which is dimly connected with many responses so that it can't really reinforce any of them. Much of the effectiveness of programed self-instruction lies in the fact that information about success is fed back immediately for each learner response. A total mark on a test the day after it is administered has little or no reinforcement value for the specific answers.

Sheer repetition without indications of improvement or any kind of reinforcement (reward) is a poor way to attempt to learn.

Practice is not enough. The learner cannot improve by repeated efforts unless he is informed whether or not each effort has been successful.

Threat and punishment have variable and uncertain effects upon learning: They may make the punished response more likely or less likely to recur; they may set up avoidance tendencies which prevent further learning.

Punishment is not, psychologically, the reverse of reward. It disturbs the relationship of the learner to the situation and the teacher. It does not assist the learner in finding and fixing the correct response.

Readiness for any new learning is a complex product of interaction among such factors as (a) sufficient physiological and psychological maturity, (b) sense of the importance of the new learning for the learner in his world, (c) mastery of prerequisites providing a fair chance of success, and (d) freedom from discouragement (expectation of failure) or threat (sense of danger).

Conversely, the learner will not be ready to try new responses which are beyond his powers or are seen as valueless or too dangerous.

Opportunity for fresh, novel, stimulating experience is a kind of reward which is quite effective in conditioning and learning.

Experiments indicate that lower animals (rats, dogs, monkeys) will learn as effectively when they receive rewards of new experience or satisfied curiosity as they will when the rewards gratify physical desires. Similarly, stimulating new insights have been found to be effective as rewards for the learning efforts of human beings.

The sense of satisfaction which results from achievement is the type of reward (reinforcement) which has the greatest transfer value to other life situations.

Any extrinsic reward--candy, or stars on a chart, or commendation--depends on its dispenser. There is no need to strive if the reward-giver is out of the picture.

area, cheating can sometimes win the extrinsic reward. The internal reward system is always present for the learner, and he sees little gain in fooling himself.

Learners progress in an area of learning only as far as they need to in order to achieve their purposes. Often they do only well enough to "get by"; with increased motivation, they improve.

Studies of reading speed show that practice alone will not bring improvement; a person may have read books for years at his customary rate, but with new demands and opportunities he may be able to double that rate.

The most effective effort is put forth by children when they attempt tasks which are not too easy and not too hard--where success seems quite possible but not certain. It is not reasonable to expect a teacher to set an appropriate level of challenge for each pupil in a class; pupils can, however, be helped to set their own goals to bring maximum satisfaction and learning.

Children are more likely to throw themselves wholeheartedly into any learning project if they themselves have participated in the selection and planning of the project.

Genuine participation (not pretended sharing) increases motivation, adaptability, and speed of learning.

Excessive direction by the teacher is likely to result in apathetic conformity, defiance, scapegoating, or escape from the whole affair.

Autocratic leadership has been found to increase dependence of members on the leader and to generate resentment (conscious or unconscious) which finds expression in attacks on weaker figures or even in sabotage of the work.

Overstrict discipline is associated with more conformity, anxiety, shyness, and acquiescence in children; greater permissiveness is associated with more initiative and creativity.

In comparisons of children whose parents were most permissive in home discipline with those whose parents were most strict (both groups of parents loving and concerned), the youngsters from permissive homes showed more enterprise, self-confidance, curiosity, and originality.

Many pupils experience so much criticism, failure, and discouragement in school that their self-confidence, level of aspiration, and sense of worth are damaged.

The pupil who sees himself at his worst in school is likely to place little value on study and to seek his role of importance outside the classroom. He may carry through life a sense of being no good for much. He is likely also to feel resentment at schools, teachers, and books.

When children or adults experience too much frustration, their behavior ceases to be integrated, purposeful, and rational. The threshold of what is "too much" varies; it is lowered by previous failures.

Pupils who have had little success and almost continuous failure at school tasks are in no condition to think, to learn or even to pay attention. They may turn their anger outward against respectable society or inward against themselves.

Pupils think whenever they encounter an obstacle, difficulty, puzzle, or intellectual challenge which interests them. The process of thinking involves designing and testing plausible solutions for the problem as understood by the thinker.

It is useless to command people to think; they must feel concerned to get somewhere and eager to remove an obstruction on the way.

The best way to help pupils form a general concept is to present the concept in numerous and varied specific situations--contrasting experiences with and without the desired concept--and then to encourage precise formulations of the general idea and its application in situations different from those in which the concept was learned.

For example, the concept of democracy might be illustrated not only in national government but also in familiar situations of home, school, church, jobs, clubs, and local affairs. It is best understood when it is contrasted with other power structures such as autocracy, oligarchy, or laissez faire.

The experience of learning by sudden insight into a previously confused or

puzzling situation arises when (a) there has been a sufficient background and preparation, (b) attention is given to the relationships operative in the whole situation, (c) the perceptual structure "frees" the key elements to be shifted into new patterns, (d) the task is meaningful and within the range of ability of the subject.

The term "cognitive reorganization" is sometimes applied to this experience. Suddenly the scene changes into one that seems familiar and can be coped with.

Learning from reading is facilitated more by time spent recalling what has been read than by re-reading.

In one experiment (typical of many), students who spent eighty percent of their learning periods trying to remember what they had read surpassed those who spent only sixty percent of the time on recollection. The students who spent all the time reading and rereading the assignment made the poorest record.

Forgetting proceeds rapidly at first--then more and more slowly. Recall shortly after learning reduces the amount forgotten.

Within twenty-four hours after learning something, a large part is forgotten unless efforts are made to prevent forgetting. A thing can be relearned more quickly than it was learned originally, however, and if it is reviewed several times at gradually increasing intervals, it can be retained for some time.

People remember new information which confirms their previous attitudes better than they remember new information which runs counter to their previous attitudes.

Studies consistently show that individuals who feel strongly on a controversial issue, and who are asked to read presentations of both sides, remember the facts and arguments which support their feelings better than they recall those on the opposite side.

What is learned is most likely to be available for use if it is learned in a situation much like that in which it is to be used and immediately preceding the time when it is needed. Learning in childhood, then forgetting, and later relearning when need arises is not an efficient procedure.

The best time to learn is when the learning can be useful. Motivation is then strongest and forgetting less of a problem. Much that is now taught children might be more effective if taught to responsible adults.

If there is a discrepancy between the real objectives and the tests used to measure achievement, the latter become the main influence upon choice of subject matter and method. Curriculum and teaching geared to standardized tests and programed learning are likely to concentrate only on learnings which can be easily checked and scored.

The most rapid mental growth comes during infancy and early childhood; the average child achieves about half of his total mental growth by age five.

In the first two years a normal child transforms the "big, bussing, blooming confusion" of his first conscious experience to organized perception of familiar faces, spoken words, surroundings, toys, bed, clothing, and foods. He differentiates himself from others, high from low, many from few, approval from disapproval. He lays a foundation for lifelong tendencies toward trust or mistrust, self-acceptance or shame, initiative or passivity; and these vitally condition further growth.

Not until adolescence do most children develop the sense of time which is required for historical perspective. The so-called facts of history--1492, 1776, and all that--can be learned by children but without any real grasp of what life was like in another period or in a different country. Most instruction in ancient, medieval, and even modern history is no more real to children than are fairy tales.

Ability to learn increases with age up to adult years. The apparent decline is largely the result of lack of motivation. We can coerce children into school activities; adult education is mostly voluntary. Men and women <u>can</u>, if they wish, master new languages, new ideas, and new ways of acting or problem-solving even at sixty and seventy years of age.

Taken from NEA JOURNAL--March 1963.

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

SARGO #6

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Racial Issues

Objectives:

To develop insight into racial issues in school situations.

To demonstrate dyadic interaction skills with students, counselors, and teachers.

Typical Encounter of the Day

The Director of Guidance of a nearby large city school system has suffered a disabling injury and will be on sick leave for approximately six weeks. His staff is inexperienced and new to the school system because of high counselor turnover each year. The superintendent heard of your exceptional program from a State Department of Education official, and was impressed with it.

He has called upon your superintendent and has requested your services as a consultant in dealing with immediate racial problems in his system. You have accepted and have agreed to devote two and one-half days a week in dealing directly with students on these issues.

You are asked to report to a senior high school in the downtown section of the city. The student population is 30% black, out of 1700 students in the grades 10 through 12. The majority of teachers have taught for only one or two years. 15% of the teachers are black and there are no black counselors. One vice-principal is black. The curriculum is three-track; general, vocational, and college preparatory.

The building is multi-storied and was constructed in 1932. It is badly in need of repair and/or remodeling. There is very little audio-visual equipment; most instructional aids have been damaged or have "disappeared." Most textbooks are out of date, in poor condition, and in short supply.

Recently, athletic and social events have been suspended because of the potential for student riots.

On your first day on the job, a group of black students present a series of demands to the principal:

1. A black studies course must be implemented immediately, in substitution for United States History which they consider a white racist course.

2. The principal is to be replaced immediately by a black.

3. Black students must be admitted to any of the three curricula, without discrimination on the basis of the results of culturally biased tests.

4. Black cultural artifacts such as Afro hairdos and dashikis will be permitted.

5. The percentage of black teachers will be increased to 30% immediately.

Assignment for Next Week

Be prepared to deal with any of the following Typical Personal Encounters in a role-playing situation.

TPE #1 A fight among a small group of black and white students has broken out in the cafeteria. You have been summoned by the supervising teacher to come quickly and stop the fighting before the incident spreads.

TPE #2 A white senior girl and a black senior boy ask to speak with you confidentially. You agree, and learn that the girl is pregnant with his child. They want to marry and run away to another part of the country. Neither of their families are aware of their relationship.

TPE #3 A group of white students are organizing community pressure to urge resumption of athletic and social events. They want to have enough police present to maintain order. The principal asks you to speak with them about the danger involved.

TPE #4 — A black male student earning "stright A's" in the college preparatory program has been threatened by other black students for what they call "Uncle Tom" behavior. He has a good chance of eventually earning a college scholarship. He wants to mind his own business, but fears for his safety. He comes to the counseling office and asks you "What should I do"?

TPE #5 — A white teacher comes to you with a black student witness and states that another black student called him a "racist bastard," before the class. The teacher wants to see the student expelled, but the principal wants your recommendation before taking any action.

Suggested collateral reading:

Bagdikian, Ben H.: In The Midst of Plenty

Baldwin, James: The Fire Next Time

Bennett, Lerone: Before the Mayflower

Brown, Claude: Manchild in the Promised Land

Cobbs, William H. et al: Black Rage

Ellison, Ruth: Invinsible Man

Franklin, John Hope: From Slavery to Freedom

Griffin, Howard: Black Like Me

Harrington, Michael: The Other America

King, Martin L., Jr.: Why We Can't Quit

Lincoln, Eric: The Negro Pilgrimage in America

Malcolm X: Autobiography of Malcolm X

Pettigrew, Thomas F.: A Profile of the Negro American

Silberman, Charles: Crisis in Black and White

Silver, James: Mississippi: The Closed Society

Smith, Lillian: Killers of the Dream

Washington, K. S., "What Counselors Must Know About Black Fever," Personnel & Guidance Journal, 47:3, November 1968, pp 204-209.

Vontress, Clemmont E., "Cultural Barriers in the Counseling Relationship," Personnel & Guidance Journal, 48:1, September 1969, pp 11-18.

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

SARGO #7

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Drug Use and Abuse

Objectives:

To develop drug information and education program suitable to your school situation.

To interact with teachers and administrators.

To interact with student groups.

Assignment

It has become quite apparent that drugs are an expanding, contemporary problem of young people. What was a problem for some adults the day before yesterday; for "hippies" yesterday; and for high school students today; is even now becoming a serious problem with some pre-adolescent youth. If indications be correct, the problem promises to become even more serious.

If the counselor is to be involved in the critical problems and concerns of youth, it is crucial that he be informed about drugs and their effects. The attached articles provide ample reference for study on drugs and their uses.

TED #1

The purpose of this SARGO is to plan, develop, and implement an educational program on drugs, their uses and abuses. The program you develop for your school will be evaluated according to the following criteria:

1. Clarity of objectives.
2. Appropriateness of procedures and materials to population.
3. Economy of program.
4. Attention to a means of evaluation.

TPE #1

Trainee programs will be selected randomly for presentation

to school committee or trustees for their approval. The school committee agenda will allow you no more than ten minutes for presentation, questions and answers, and a vote on the issue.

TPE #2

A group of students have asked you to discuss the difference between habit-forming and non-habit-forming drugs.

TPE #3

You have just finished a 35 minute drug abuse information assembly of the entire student body. You will now entertain questions from the floor.

TPE #4

A group of concerned students read about a recent death at a nearby college. They submit you a letter written by the Dean of Students of that college (see attached letter by Dean Ward), and ask you what they could do personally to prevent such an incident at their school.

PSYCHEDELICS AND THE COLLEGE STUDENT
Student Committee on Mental Health, Princeton University

I. Legal Aspects of Drug Use

The use of most psychedelic drugs is, above all, illegal. The future problems--in employment and in admission to some graduate schools, for example--of a police record for "drug use" are significant, regardless of the type of drug.

States vary in their classification of psychedelic drugs and in the penalties prescribed. LSD in some states is classified as a "dangerous drug," with mild or moderate penalties for its abuse. In at least one state it is classified as a narcotic. Some states have no state law pertaining to LSD. Federal law and many state laws classify marijuana and hashish as narcotics. (See 6101 Legal Aspects of Drug use in Massachusetts)

II. Medical Aspects of Drug Use

The effects on the human body and mind of psychedelic drugs such as marijuana vary widely and are by no means entirely known. Although after study, this committee feels that the bulk of medical evidence indicates that the medically deleterious effects on individual and public health from alcohol are currently as great as marijuana, this does not excuse neglect of the effects of the illegal drugs.

The distinctions among drugs are important, for some drugs--fortunately--have only limited popularity with those college students who experiment with drugs and thus, can be dismissed quickly for the purposes of this study. The opiate narcotics, especially heroin, are dangerous for at least three reasons:

i. They addict physiologically, so that withdrawal causes illness, sometimes death.

ii. They are readily subject to overdosage. Recent studies have concluded that about 1% of heroin addicts in New York City die each year merely from overdosage.

iii. Other physical and mental damage results from their prolonged use.

Both the "sedatives" (especially barbiturates) and the "stimulants" (mainly the amphetamines) have their significant dangers, particularly an addiction to barbiturates, which is very difficult to break. The risks and physiological harms are not unlike those of the opiate narcotics.

The third group is that of the psychedelics. It is this group which has been increasingly popular on college campuses, and it is this group we shall examine.

The most potent of these drugs is LSD (lysergic acid diethylamide).* LSD distorts the user's perception of the physical and psychological environment, often severely. Shapes, colors, sounds, tastes, touches, and emotional feelings are much different. Although careful selection of subjects and careful control of the environment and psychological conditions of the LSD "trip" do give some protection against the possibility of harmful effects, it is now impossible to control those effects entirely.

III. Social Aspects of Drug Use

Any honest discussion of the social aspects of the use of psychedelics on college campuses must admit before it begins that the conclusions it derives are, at best generalized statements can often be useful, for there are certain elements which are fairly representative of the over-all picture of student use of psychedelic drugs. The percentage participating in the different types of drug activity vary from campus to campus, but some of the basic patterns hold true for most of the universities which have been studied by various researches.

There have been many recent attempts to categorize the type of student who is experimenting with psychedelic drugs. But types of drug experimenters have changed considerably in the United States in a relatively short period of time. Drugs have moved from the province of criminals to the intellectuals and the middle-class and, somehwere in between these, the college students.

With the growth of drug use, the students experimenting with psychedelics include athletes and scholars, science majors and art majors, rich and poor, devout and agnostic, socially popular and socially rejected. In each of these groups, something in the psychedelic experience may draw some for different personal needs and interests. No generalization can be made saying that all drug-takers fit a certain mold.

There are essentially two broad groups of students interested in actually using drugs, groups which the committee will call "social" and "insight" for lack of better words.

To the "social" groups, marijuana is smoked for essentially the same reasons that other groups use alcohol: escape from temporary pressures and worries to reach a mental condition at which it is easier to have uninhibited social enjoyment and intellectual relaxation. They feel that marijuana gives a more sensually pleasurable "high" feeling, that it does not have hang-over effects (although smoke may cause nausea).

The groups which use marijuana on campus vary in their involvement in student activities and in their general integration into the university life. The student in these groups for such social reasons are drawn from all sectors of the student body. And the groups themselves are usually rather solid social units, forming a base of acceptance and comradeship. Of course, students may also become members of off-campus groups.

But the possibility of student "informers" to police remains a threat which might undermine a group's social unity.

This social approach to marijuana emphasizes the role of the small group: the way others look at it and the way it looks at itself. The newcomer associates with the group's social image, whether that image is labelled as "bearded" or "cool." In addition, marijuana smoking is at least as communal as drinking alcohol to such groups; often, in fact, the marijuana is placed in one pipe, then passed around. This group activity is a source of acceptance, reducing the newcomer's uncertainty regarding marijuana.

There is another type of user which the committee has grouped under the "social label: those members of the student body who are not integrated into the more normal social life of the university of college. Such isolated groups are

Nausea, occasionally prolonged, palpitation, and sweating are among the physical changes produced. A handful of deaths have occurred, either from suicide or from misinterpretation of the environment, and some hundreds of prolonged psychoses are well-documented. No one knows precisely how LSD will affect another, or even himself.

A variety of other psychedelic drugs are available through underground channels: peyote and psilocybin from natural sources, and a growing list of synthetic products, of which the most common at the moment seems to be DMT (dimethyltryptamine). None is nearly as potent as LSD per unit of weight, but in other respects their effects approach those of LSD.

Pharmacologically, the mildest of the psychedelics is marijuana, although--as the LEGAL ASPECTS section points out--it is classified as a narcotic under the Harrison Narcotics Act. Marijuana can cause nausea and disturbances of the nervous system if used in high enough dosage. It can also cause distortion of perceptions of the environment, although not as intensely as LSD. Relating the medical element to the social element, such distortions might precipitate a traffic accident, for example, if the user drove while under the influence of marijuana. A recent report by the Harvard Health Services found examples of severe mental disturbances lasting a few hours among marijuana users.

The most potent form of marijuana is a concentrate called hashish, usually originating abroad. The effects of hashish approach more nearly the severity of LSD than the ordinary forms of marijuana.

In addition, both marijuana and the other agents are often"cut" (diluted) with unknown fillers, some of which may be toxic and some of which have contained poisonous heavy metals. The purity of the drugs obtained from illegal channels is sometimes undependable. Drug researchers advise that mixing drugs can be extremely harmful, especially mixing amphetamines with other drugs.

While the psychedelics do not cause the physical dependence that the opiates do, they can result in habituation.. Their long-term effect on behavior and social adjustment can be significant. General physical and mental deterioration in chronic hashish-users is reported from other cultures, although this is difficult to evaluate for the United States. The long-term effects of chronic LSD usage are essentially unknown. Recent scientific evidence from animal experiements suggests that LSD may produce chromosomal breaks and deformities in offspring.

Some experimental centers in the United States are presently working with psychedelics in the psychiatric treatment of alcoholism, homosexuality, criminal sociopathology, and neuroses.

Whether users of marijuana or any psychedelic are led to the use of other drugs has been the subject of continuing debate and research. Although nothing in the physical effects of the drugs seems to produce such a phenomenon, the sociological and psychological concomitants of drug usage apparently may create temptation to other drug use. Moreover, those with poor control over their impulses and those whose emotional lives are otherwise deficient are frequently among those using drugs of all sorts.

*There have been recent reports of a new drug, STP, which is said to be more mind-distorting than LSD.

one stage away from the earlier "social" groups: they are usually in varying stages of revolt against what they consider "the system," more often than other student groups.

At times, such persons use marijuana or alcohol for the same reasons as the previous "social" groups: temporary escape and social facilitation. At other times, however, they use marijuana for a retreat from situations which the individuals refuse to face. There are cases of such use which "helped get the students through the trying stages of college life." But such reliance can lead to situations which can be seriously damaging when the individual is thrust into society's demands and realities, immediately upon graduation.

Two other elements of importance pertaining essentially to marijuana:
Some argue that the purchase of marijuana involves the individual with the most undesirable parts of society. Others reply that this charge does not apply to college campuses because students get marijuana from their friends, and are rarely exposed first-hand to underworld elements.

Drug users often claim a desire to rise above "middle-class mediocrity" in refusing to be bound by laws which they consider unjust and inconsistent. Why should marijuana be illegal when alcohol is not, they contend. Moreover, they continue, why should marijuana be considered more censurable legally than such drugs as LSD? Declaration of personal independence" and "removal from the crowd" are often cited as reasons for drug use.

Opponents of this view contend that the users are merely conforming to non-conformity--especially with the growing use of drugs among college groups and among groups labelled as "intellectual" within the colleges themselves. They further contend that such an argument is given largely by those who take drugs only to prove their "liberal" leanings.

So much for the "social" users.

There is another group that has been developing most recently, a group which we have termed the "insight" group. These students too may smoke marijuana for reasons such as depression, insecurity, or rebellion. But their purpose is often more specifically "to gain psychological insight." Whether the "insight" is true or merely imagined is still the subject of medical and psychological examination, and perhaps it depends on individual cases.

At any rate, it is this group which is most ready to try the more powerful psychedelics, such as LSD and DMT. Information on the motives for trying these drugs is not yet very substantial; even less substantial is information concerning the ensuing experiences.

The outcome of a psychedelic experience induced through ingestion of LSD or a similar chemical is influenced by several factors. The first is setting, or the environmental atmosphere in which the drug is taken. For experimental, optimal conditions experimenters try to make the setting hospitable, familiar, and without any possible sudden alterations. The individuals present are usually limited to one or two close friends, who are familiar with the effects of the psychedelic drugs, in which an experienced person takes the drug with and inexperienced one, and another experienced guide "stays down" to control the trips. This "guide" has the responsibility of providing the person taking LSD with an adequate tie with reality. Because an individual "high" on LSD is influenced by suggestions, limited control of the type of experience--pleasant or unpleasant--is possible in most instances under such ideal, experimental conditions.

Under the ideal experimental conditions many individuals taking LSD-- in the proper setting and set-- have been able to pass through possible traumatic par's of an LSD experience without suffering permanent psychological harm. But the potential danger of unpleasant moments and--much more important--of permanent psychological damage, must be realized as a possible outcome even in such optimal circumstances. Without these circumstances, the chances of mishap are considerably increased.

Those who use the drugs argue that--given the proper setting, guide, and personality preparation--many have what they consider to be worthwhile experiences through LSD: religious, aesthetic, intellectual, or purely sensual. In any case, they say the "trip" is often an insight into the taker's own personality: it magnifies that personality and lets the taker know more about himself.

Others disagree. They contend: either that LSD and such psychedelics alter and distort the basic personality structure, not magnify and illuminate it; or that psychedelics show an imagined personality, not a real one.

But there is some area of agreement. A poor "guide," a hostile setting, or an unbalanced personality can cause the individual to experience a temporary horror show--or possibly a permanent mental problem. Abnormal psychological states--such as schizophrenia, for example--often remain hidden to the person who has them. In such cases, LSD can--and has--caused permanent damage

Right now, the debate over LSD is more emotional than factual or academic. many of the facts simply are not there. Research is now being done, dealing with controls for the psychedelic experience. In time, those who might like to try LSD might be able to take a psychedelic chemical with some confidence in what will follow in his mind. But at the moment, any student experimenting with such drugs as LSD is taking a risk.

Among the "insight" group of users, many search for personal meditative, religious, or mystic experiences. Others of the same group use LSD and other such psychedelics to try and study the operations and possibilities of their minds. Once again, some say that this use has led to a greater control over the mental processes. Others contend that it can lead to loss of control, often leaving a permanent negative mark on the individual personality.

The use of LSD can also apparently alter the personality itself. Some have psychological problems: research being done with childhood schizophrenia works along this line. Others find a "new personality" dramatically different and frightening. Any student opting to try a psychedelic drug should consider this possibility. We must emphasize, however, that all preparations still leave the outcome uncertain.

IV. The Psychedelic 'Experience'

Each individual's psychedelic experience is unique. Therefore the evaluation of any such experience is difficult. It may be useful in trying to understand the use of drugs to look at two aspects of that experience. [illegible] accounts are fictional, written by members of the committee. But they are based on actual opinions and facts--as far as they can be determined--concerning LSD trips.

A. A Successful Trip

"My sixth LSD experience started as I took 400 micrograms of LSD and waited thirty minutes for it to take effect. The first stage of the 'trip' was one of pure sensory ecstasy. LSD magnified enormously my capacity for aesthetic experience of music, art, architecture, and nature. Space and time changed. Sometimes it was stretched out as my mind worked faster and music sounded slow enough to be savored note by note. At other times, it varied between normal speed and a dead halt as my attention switched from the action around me to my own thoughts. My perception of distance and magnitude kept changing. Occasionally I could consciously control the variation. Walls seemed to bend as if made of a flexible material. I also experienced synaesthesia, an integration of my senses; I could see music emerge from the speakers and drift toward me in three dimensions and in color.

"The second stage was one of recollection and selfanalysis. My ability to remember, and practically relive, many long-forgotten incidents was amazing. My self-understanding was greatly increased; it was something like going through several years of psychoanalysis in a few hours. I recognized that some of my values and attitudes result from particular incidents in the past which were traumatic. I learned a great deal about myself and this knowledge has helped me with the questions which I am now facing regarding my future.

"On this 'trip' I went beyond the second stage for the first time. The third stage is a non-verbal stage of symbolic images. Historical, mythical, and archetypal images filled my mind. Most of them involved characters and situations which said something about mankind and the meaning of life.

"The highest stage was close to a mystical experience. I find it difficult to express what little I can remember of this experience, but I felt that all my thoughts, emotions, sensations, and memories were fused into total understanding of myself and my place in the world."

B. An Unsuccessful Trip

"It was not my first trip that ended in chaos, it was my third. On my first two, my experiences were apparently conventional. There were gaudy lights, the grotesquely real new ways of looking at people, the rapid experiencing of sights, sounds, and feelings. My friends told me that this was expanded consciousness, and so I believed them. Afterwards, I did seem to be able to have new insights on my friends and family, at least after talking with my friends, and I was willing to overlook the very frightening moments of anxiety early in the trips through which my guide helped me.

"But it was my third, as I say, which was disastrous. Why, I cannot say. The dose was supposed to be the same (but you can't be sure, of course, unless you're a chemist and have made it yourself). The room was the same, and the guide was there with me, I anticipated greater ecstasy.

"But it was early in the trip that I noted that his face was more distorted than usual--strange, I never noticed how ugly he could be. And why did he have to shout at me so loudly? And then it was upon me, that searing pain in my chest, stabbing and growing. I dashed for the kitchen to get a knife to cut it out, but the doorway wasn't there. My guide caught me, held me, and in an hour (or so it seemed), it passed.

Then, I realized that I got in a subway, thinking that I could ride it to the end of the line. At once these words, 'end of the line' assumed awful and multiple proportions. I felt drawn and impelled towards this 'end of the line' where Some Thing was waiting and beckoning. I felt there I might find fulfillment or destruction, or both."

"At other times, I awakened into an increasingly incredible and terrifying world. I stood on the edge of a giant elevator shaft, which extended down into the infinite. And insane-looking men kept passing into elevators and coming out again--the same men, over and over."

"Then it was pleasant for a while. A ray of sunshine came in the window and illuminated not only the room but the inside of our bodies. I was light, I floated. I could float up into the sky. I went to the window, but it was locked; the door, that was the way to fly! I was out of it before my guide could catch me and flying down the stairs. And then the sickening pain in my left shoulder (I afterwards found that I had been caught at the bottom of the stairs, and that my shoulder had been dislocated at that moment). The pain overwhelmed me, and I could no longer recognize people."

"It was later that I began to have some contact in the drab ward of the hospital, but not for four weeks was I free enough of hallucinations and ordered enough in thought and action to be released. Now, three months later, I am approaching a point at which I can return to college."

"What about consciousness expansion and mystic experience and new meaning to life? A few of my friends insist that they have all these, and perhaps some do. But it is all to easy to term a rapid jumble of thoughts an increase in consciousness if your friend considers that he has had a mystic experience merely because he has for the first time been able to talk with friends about his feelings and theories; what I don't know about him is whether his feelings are the influence of the drug or the influence of the group."*

*Many details from both 'trips' were taken from Varieties of Psychedelic Experience by R. E. L. Masters and J. Houston.

V. Glossary

Addiction	a state of chronic intoxication produced by repeated consumption of a drug; its characteristics include (1) an overpowering desire or need to continue taking the drug and to obtain it by any means, (2) a tendency to increase the dose, (3) a psychological and physical dependence on the effects of the drug so that illness results from cessation of intake, and (4) a detrimental effect on the individual.
Amphetamines	stimulant drugs such as dexedrine, methedrine, and benzedrine; often known as "goof balls."
Barbiturates	depressant drugs which can be addicting.
DMT	dimethyltryptamine, a non-addicting psychedelic drug; normal dose is 50 to 60 milligrams and the effects last about half an hour.
Habituation	a psychological dependence on a drug with a strong desire to continue taking the drug for the sense of improved well-being or satisfaction which it engenders, as distinct from the physical dependence of addiction.
Hashish	a concentrated form of marijuana's active element, the resin obtained from the flowers of the cannabis plant.
Heroin	An opiate and narcotic; an alkaloid from the poppy plant.
LSD	Lysergic acid diethylamide; by weight, the most potent psychedelic drug; normal dose is 100 to 300 micrograms and the effects last from 8 to 10 hours; non-addicting.
Marijuana	a non-addicting drug obtained from the flowering tops of the cannabis or hemp plant.
Mescaline	The pure, non-addicting alkaloid derived from peyote; normal dose is 300 to 800 milligrams and the effects last from 8 to 10 hours.
Narcotics	a group of addicting drugs; the most common are the opiates: heroin and opium.
Opiate	any medicine containing or derived from opium.
Peyote	the unconcentrated preparation from the cactus plant, Anhelonium williamsii, non-addicting.
Psilocybin	a non-addicting drug derived from a type of mushroom; normal dose is 20 to 60 milligrams and effects last 5 to 6 hours.
Psychedelics	a group of non-addicting drugs which alter perception and consciousness; with experience one can decrease the dosage and get the same effects; the more common types are marijuana, hashish, LSD, DMT, peyote, and mesclaine.
Set	the personal variables of a psychedelic experience such as personality, expectations, values, anxieties, desires, and one's degree of self-understanding.
Setting	the external conditions of a psychedelic experience such as the surrounding or location, the people present, the size of the group, the time of day, the degree of privacy, and the experience of the guide.
STP	4 methyl, 2, 5 dimethoxy alpha-methyl phenethylamine; a psychedelic chemical related to mescaline and amphetamine, said to be extremely mind-distorting.

COOL TALK ABOUT HOT DRUGS

Donald B. Louria, M.D.

Heroin - it should be emphasized that we are not now in a period of burgeoning heroin abuse. Around 1900, when various opiates (of which heroin is one) were incorporated in many patent medicines, about one in 400 persons in this country--a tremendous proportion--was addicted; the current figure is about one in 2000. Our problem is not that we have more heroin addiction than we used to, but that we have been unable to make a dent in the number of heroin addiction users over the past dozen years.

There is little heroin in our colleges. Heroin is a problem of the high-school dropout. It is a problem of the areas of decay within our large cities. Some 65 to 70 percent of those who use heroin are Negroes, Mexicans, or Puerto Ricans. And New York City has more than 50 percent of the addiction in the country.

There is not one whit of evidence that heroin users are given to man-to-man violence. Their crimes are more against property. In new York City, some 20 to 30 percent of such crimes are committed by heroin addicts; it has been estimated that they steal up to one billion dollars' worth of goods a year to support their habit.

It is widely believed that one shot of heroin inevitably leads to addiction. This is not true. There is a sharp distinction between habituation (chronic use of the drug) and addiction (physical dependence). There are many weekend users of heroin, or people who take two shots a day, who never increase the amount and never become physiologically addicted. If heroin is discontinued suddenly for these individuals (the so-called cold-turkey treatment), they recover without any of the symptoms -- nausea, vomiting, chills, fever, diarrhea and muscle aches -- popularly associated with withdrawal.

What has happened is that the criminal element engaged in selling drugs has cut the heroin inordinately, so that the addict gets a progressively weaker mixture - now usually in the range of one or two percent. One percent is not very much heroin.

About one percent of the addict population in New York dies each year of overdose - an enormous incidence. It can happen, for example, if the addict has just been released from jail after a period of enforced abstinence. He takes the same amount of drug that he did before incarceration, but his body has lost its tolerance. Sometimes, if a pusher wants to get rid of a troublesome addict, he gives him pure heroin; the user takes it, thinking he is getting his usual weak dose, and dies. Or some neophyte may see other people use two bags of heroin; not realizing that they have been doing this for months or even years, he takes two bags - and for him it is a lethal dose.

No user knows what he is getting when he buys a packet. He may be getting milk sugar, quinine, baking soda; he may be getting one-tenth of one-percent heroin; he may be getting 75-percent heroin. Anything above 30 percent is likely to be fatal. An overdose produces virtually immediate lung congestion. The New York Medical Examiner's office has photographs of people who have died without time to pull the needle from their vein.

Addiction is a curable disease. When addicts reach the age of 30 or 35, they often suddenly lose the need for heroin, withdraw by themselves, and never go back to the habit. It is called the maturing-out process. Why this should be, no one knows. But it is ridiculous to assume that this desease is incurable, and that therefore these people must be maintained indefinitely on narcotics.

Britain allows a doctor to prescribe drugs for an addict, once he is convinced that the patient is truly addicted (although new legislation will restrict this right to specially licensed doctors). Thus, drugs there are inexpensive. The assumption when the original law was passed was that, if there was no illegal traffic in high-priced drugs, addicts would not be forced to become criminals and would be restored to social usefulness. It turns out, however, that addicts, not pushers, are the greatest recruitors of new addicts, In the last five years, the number of British addicts has more than doubled -- and the number of youthful heroin users has increased tremendously.

There are three major appraches to rehebilitation in the United States. One is civil commitment--which both New York and California employ. Second is the methadone maintenance program such as the one being conducted in New York City (with methadone, a non damaging synthetic which is itself addictive, substituted for heroin). Finally, there are the group-therapy programs, typified by organizations such as Sunanon and Day Top.

The New York State program, emphasizing education and job rehabilitation, with a careful followup, seems to me potentially the most effective. Like other treatments, however, it doesn't deal with the real problem. Unless we stop just treating the disease after it has occurred and do more about prevention--by eliminating urban decay and deterioration, poverty, under-education, prejudice, lack of job opportunities--we will not succeed in minimizing the heroin problem.

LSD - No one knows the prevalence of use of LSD, though four separate recent studies suggest that about one percent of young people use it. There is some evidence that it is increasing on the West Coast while diminishing in Chicago and New York.

There are potential medical uses for the drug--treatment of chronic alcholics and schizophrenic children, the relief of patients in terminal disease--that should be explored further under medical control. But its major use, of course, is for hedonistic purposes, often disguided under pretentious claims.

Advocates say that LSD increases creativity. There is no evidence that this is so. In one study, accomplished pianists were taped-recorded while playing under the influence of LSD. They insisted that they had bever played so well before but, when the tapes were played back later, almost invariably their reaction was, "How could I have been that bad?"

Another claim is that it makes one a better person, or that it helps in achieving self-understanding. The level of understanding is usually childishly superficial. One boy was brought into New York City's Bellevue Hospital after taking an enormous, 3000-microgram dose of LSD. When he finally came out of his trip, which took a long while, he said it had been a great experience because, "I understand myself now." He asked, "What did you find out?" He said, "Through this experience, I have learned that I am basically egotistical." That's a lot of LSD to take to learn that you are egotistical.

A claim that is totally spurious is that LSD is an aphrodisiac. Playboy

that LSD is the most powerful aphrodisiac never discovered by man." While an LSD hallucination may have highly erotic content, the drug is, if anything, an anti-aphrodisiac. In the course of a debate at Muhlenberg College, I asked Dr. Leary how he could justify his statements in view of the known facts. He replied that he meant that LSD is an aphrodisiac in the sense that it infuses one with love for his fellow man, but that it has nothing to do with casual physical-sexual gratification.

Used promiscuously under uncontrolled circumstances, LSD is extremely dangerous. It is absolutely unpredictable. Of the 114 cases hospitalized at Bellevue during a recent 18-month period, 13 percent entered the hospital with overwhelming panic. There was uncontrolled violence in 12 percent. Nearly 9 percent had attempted either homicide or suicide. Of the 114, almsot 14 percent had to be sent on to long-term mental hospitalization, and half of those had no previous history of underlying psychiatric disorder.

LSD has another danger not adequately emphasized. A small but growing number of people who take LSD repeatedly withdraw from society. They engage in perpetual introspective orgies, live in totally drug-oriented life. become negativistic and unconstructive. These people are beginning to worry even some of the proponents of LSD. If the group were to become much larger, it would conceivably be a substantial danger to society as a whole.

Also, recent data in both experimental animals and man show that LSD can induce chromosomal breaks. This raises the specter of physical or mental abnormalities in chronic users or their offspring.

I think that the laws concerning LSD should be made tougher. Manufacturing or selling it illicitly should be a felony, and illicit posession should be a misdemeanor.

MARIJUANA - Marijuana is the campus drug. It is a relatively weak form of the hallucinogen known generically as cannabis. (In other countries, kif and bhang are cannabis preparations of similar strength; more potent variations are ganga, charas and hashish.) Even among chronic users in the United States, average consumption does not usually exceed three cigarettes a day.

Is marijuana dangerous? The answer is a qualified yes. For one thing, an individual under its influence tends to lose his coordination yet often has a feeling of omnipotence. A marijuana smoker behind the wheel of an automobile is dangerous. He is in a sense more dangerous--because less likely to be detected--than a drunken driver.

Those who would legalize marijuana often quote the so-called LaGuardia report of a New York City study made in 1944. One section that they do not quote records that nine out of 77 subjects had some form of pscyhotic episode when given marijuana experimentally. Admittedly, these subjects were given an extract equivalent to something between two and ten cigarettes at one time. But the report also records: "One subject smoked one cigaretts and became restless, agitated, dizzy, fearful of his surroundings, afraid of death. He had three short attacks of consciousness." That is not my di-finition of an entirely safe drug--even though such reactions are infrequent and far less extreme than with LSD.

Marijuana does not inevitably lead the user to experiment with "hard" drugs such as heroin, not, in the strength smoked in the United States, does it cause addiction or physical deterioration. But it does often start an individual

into the morass of drug abuse; whether he moves on or stops depends upon him and his environment. Also, there is evidence from Morocco, where kif is commonly smoked in pipes; in excess of ten pipefuls a day, thus heavy consumption is associated with a marked increase in mental derangement.

The New York Times Magazine
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MARIHUANA: A COUNSELING CONCERN

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This article briefly places marihuana in a historical and contemporary perspective. It defines marihuana and its variability, as well as such terms as: dependence, tolerance, habituation, addiction, followed by some legal considerations. In addition to this, both the physical and psychological effects are discussed. Various reasons for drug use are hypothesized and the counselor's role and responsibility are discussed.

Much has been said and written about student use of marihuana and what effects marihuana has both physically and psychologically. "Experts" and "authorities" on the subject have been increasing, some creating myths and continued confusions, others reacting with clarity, and in terms of what currently is known about marihuana. Counselors should be able to clarify or at least identify myths that occur during the counseling process. In addition counselors should function as a key resource person for members of the community. An important requisite for counselors is to understand marihuana in a historical context as well as in a contemporary context and to be able to identify fact from fiction.

The use of drugs, in this country, has been around a long time in one form or another. William James in his Varieties of Religious Experience, (1936), talks about ether as a mind expanding drug and its significance in religious experiences. On September 13, 1938, Mayor LaGuardia, in response to demands of the press and others to do something about the marihuana situation in New York, appropriately asked the New York Academy of Medicine to make a study of reported use of the drugs in the City of New York. The Report was issued in 1944 and included in The Marihuana Papers, Solomon (1966), considered by many the major work on the subject. In no way is the mention of the above two studies an attempt to underestimate the situation of marihuana use today. Rather it is to emphasize that we have been on this trip before.

Teen-age drug use for "mind expanding" (a more appropriate classification is mind altering, as consequences are often "mind restricting") purpose is extremely variable and ranges from sniffing dope, smoking banana peels, chewing catnip, dipping cigarettes in cough syrup or paregoric and smoking them when they are dried, eating two to three tablespoonsful of nutmeg, to smoking marihuana or other hallucinogenics, taking amphetamines, barbiturates or heroin. It should be pointed out that the kitchen cabinet, medicine chest "turn-on" is quite often dangerous, as the agent that carries the drug is often extremely harmful. For example, sniffing glue with a benzene base resulted in aplastic anemia in six youngsters, one of whom died, whereas ingestion of nutmeg can cause nausea, vomiting, headache and other symptoms.(Weil, 1966).

The use of marihuana at the high school level, as well as on college and university campuses is generally recognized as a fact and in a limited way, is spreading to certain junior high schools. Results of a questionnaire survey (Fitzgerald and Frizzle, 1969) of 7-12th grades in a college community report "nearly 15% of the members of the student body indicate having had at least one experience with marihuana." Approximately 8% have apparently used it five or more times. Eells (1968) conducted a survey of students at the California Institute of Technology to determine the extent of marihuana use on campus. The results are not too dissimilar to those found in the Amherst survey. One thousand two hundred ninety graduate and undergraduate students returned the questionnaire; 13.7% reported using marihuana "one or more times," while 4.7% reported

use "ten or more times," while only 7.4% of the 190 freshmen used marihuana "one or more times." The Ecils study also reported percentages of students using LSD, with results considerably lower than those reported for marihuana use.

Parenthetically there seems to be an increase in amphetamines and barbiturates. In spite of user generated slogans such as "speed kills" and warnings in "underground" newspapers, "dope is marihuana, LSD, peyote, mescoline, psylocybin, sacred mushrooms, hashish, DMT, DET, STP, nitrous oxide, and other beautiful chemical substances that make you feel good without hurting you. The other kinds of dope hurt -- heroin, alcohol, morphine, amphetamine crystal, barbiturates, television programming, schools, jails, police, control, power, greed -- the people who are addicted to these heavy narcotics try to tell us that we are dope fiends." (Sinclair, 1969, p. 11)

Use of heroin at the high school level appears to be rather restricted with occasional weekend use. Heroin as well as other drugs is often of an uncertain nature and usually adulterated and rather impotent. If "clean" heroin were used, it would be possible to become addicted in one weekend of heavy use.

What it is.

The term marihuana has come to refer to any part of the hemp plant (cannabis sativa) or its extracts. The term marihuana was originally confined to Mexico, and possibly restricted to high resin content

heroin and marihuana and despite the psychological differences in their effects, most notably with regard to physical dependence, I do not find that the inclusion of marihuana in the statutory definition of narcotic drugs is constitutionally offensive... On all instances of marihuana use, except the second and subsequent offense of possession with intent to sell, the execution of the sentence may be suspended and parole and probation may be granted."

Effects of Marihuana

It is recognized that the effects of marihuana are dependent upon the dosage, time interval since last injection or inhaling, subject's personality and background and environmental conditions when the drug is taken. In an extensive study Halpern (LaGuardia Committee 1966) concluded, "It is important to note that neither ingestion of marihuana nor the smoking of marihuana cigarettes affect the basic outlook of the individual except in a very few instances and to a very slight degree. In general the subjects who are withdrawn and introversive stay that way, those who are outgoing remain so... In other words, reactions which are actively alien to the individual cannot be induced by ingestion or smoking of the drug." (p. 387). Stated more succinctly, "The dream you get, is the dream you deserve."

Most common reaction to the drug is that it makes you feel "high." Elaboration of what the smoker means by high varies with the individual. "However, there is common agreement that a feeling of ade-

would indicate its use in high schools is not too far behind.

Definitions

Physical Dependence is best understood by observations of the withdrawal effects. If drugs that produce physical dependence are suddenly withdrawn, a characteristic "withdrawal sickness" occurs. Under this definition, marihuana is not physically dependent. The Narcotic Analgesics such as heroin, morphine, methodone codeine, paregoric, etc. and depressants taken repeatedly with large doses such as barbiturates, equanil, miltown, librium, and alcohol can all lead to physical dependence.

Tolerance refers to the need for increased doses in order to produce the effect originally achieved by smaller doses. The relationships between marihuana and tolerance is not clear. Some smokers claim a "high" with a couple of drags (even after abstaining for an extended period of time), neophytes are known to smoke an entire joint or in some cases two without any effects. This variability, however, can be contributed to the depth and length of inhaling or the purity of marihuana which leaves the question of tolerance unanswered. Tolerance is associated with the narcotic analgesics, depressants as well as stimulants such as amphetamine, methedrine, and phenmetrazine, and strong hallucinogenics -- LSD, STP, DMT, etc.

Habituation or psychological dependence refers to craving for a drug and to the individual's perseverance in drug-seeking behavior. Tobacco, cola,

Cannabis, such as bhang. The name marihuana is now used to [illegible] ular scene in the United States. A resin obtained from the flowering tops of the female plant contains most of the active ingredients. This resin, known as "Hashish" in Arab countries, is far more potent than the dried leaves and flowering shoots. Very often the term Hash or Hashish is used to refer to any cannabis drug. The potency of the active ingredients of the cannabis plant varies with the region of growth. In the United States horticultural conditions are generally unfavorable for the production of high resin content. Common names for cannabis include: "Bhang, ganja, charas (India), Kif (Morocco), dagga (South Africa), anascha (Russia), maconha (Brazil), tea, pot, sticks, grass, joints, reefers (U.S. slang)." (Pet and Ball, 1968)

The active ingredient of cannabis has been identified as tetrahydrocannabinol (THC or Delta Nine) but the chemistry is extremely complex and not completely understood. THC or Delta Nine was first isolated by a chemist, Dr. Rafael Mechoulam in 1964. A chemical research team headed by Edward C. Taylor at Princeton University devised an economical synthesis of the drug's essence a year later. The synthetic has significance for research purposes as rigorously controlled tests of dosage effects are now possible and being conducted under the direction of the National Institute of Mental Health. The synthetic, however, means something else to the consumer. It is described as more potent than LSD and can be inhaled by smoking or ingested in either liquid or pill form. The use of THC is rumored on college campuses, which, if true,

and coffee are familiar examples of habituation as is marihuana and all psychoactive drugs previously mentioned.

Addiction. While confusion exists on an accurate definition of addiction and classification of drugs, it seems that there are three properties which a drug must have before it is considered medically addictive: it must produce tolerance, withdrawal symptoms, and habituation. Marihuana does not produce physical dependencies and consequently is not associated with withdrawal symptoms. Marihuana can be considered a habituating drug in that a psychological dependence can be elicited with its use. Medically, then, marihuana is best described as possibly habit forming rather than addicting. The excessive use of marihuana is not synonymous with addiction, in the medical sense, but rather dependence in the psychological sense.

Legal Definitions

Federal control of marihuana is the responsibility of the Federal Bureau of Narcotics under the Marihuana Tax Act of 1937. The controls over marihuana under Federal and state laws are dissimilar. Under federal law marihuana is not considered a narcotic drug. However, many states such as Massachusetts have covered marihuana by including it within the definition of "narcotic drug." In a ruling issued by Chief Justice Tauro (1967), he stated, "expert witnesses indicated that the term 'narcotic' as currently used, is a legal term with no precise, technical meaning, and is employed to describe a varied assortment of harmful and dangerous drugs... despite some pharmacological difference between other drugs, such as

quacy and efficiency is induced by the use of marihuana and that conflicts mental conflicts are allayed." (Shoenfeld 1966, p. 295).

A second type of reaction is an induced state of anxiety with fear of consequences such as death or insanity. The psychic states of exaltation and anxiety can appear in succession or independent of one another. Duration of the effects of marihuana are variable. When it is ingested the effects pass off in from two to four hours, but can persist for days in certain individuals. After smoking, the effects are of much shorter duration, usually from one to three hours.

Allentuck, as part of Mayor LaGuardia's Committee (1966), reports that "While the duration of action and its intensity tended to increase with dosage, this was not always the case and equal doses did not bring about uniform effects in all those receiving them. Thus, 3 cc produced a striking effect in one individual, much less in another. In still another, 10 cc produced less effect than 5 cc. Such differences are to be explained by differences in the mental make-up of the subject, and the particular state of his responsiveness at the time when marihuana is taken. The number of cigarettes smoked ranged from one to eleven. The smoking of a single cigarette took about ten minutes; up to eight could be smoked in an hour. In smoking, increasing the number of cigarettes usually increased the sensation described as "high," but here also there was no uniformity in individuals or groups."

There is an agreement that psychotic episodes can be precipitated as a result of inhaling or ingesting marihuana. Allentuck, Bowman (1966)

report that psychotic episodes occurred in 9 of 77 subjects; the duration varying from short periods of three to ten hours, to one case where hospitalization occurred for six months. It should be noted that a characteristic marihuana psychosis does not exist. Marihuana will not produce a psychosis in a well-integrated and stable person.

Physical Effects

Nowlis (1969), in referring to marihuana, states, "It is ironic that so little is known about the pharmacological and behavioral effects of what with the possible exception of alcohol may be the most widely used psychoactive drug in the world." (p. 95). The difficulty is further confounded when generalizations are made from the administration of a precise quantity of synthetics or natural extracts of unstable potency, in controlled studies, to what actually occurs in the natural environment.

Nowlis (1969) reports increased pulse rate, a slight rise in blood pressure and in blood sugar, increased frequency of urination, dilation of the pupils, and a reddening of the eyes resembling conjunctivitis, dryness of the mouth and throat and occasionally nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Nowlis' conclusions, however, are not completely substantiated by Weil, Zinberg and Nelson (1968) in what appears to be the first study of marihuana to use a placebo treatment. Their conclusions are summarized below, points six, seven and eight contradicting the Nowlis descriptions.

1) In a neutral setting persons who are naive to marihuana do not have strong subjective experiences...

2) Marihuana -- naive persons do demonstrate impaired performance on simple intellectual and psychomotor tests after smoking marihuana; the impairment is dose-related in some cases.

3) Regular users of marihuana do get high after smoking marihuana in a neutral setting but do not show the same degree of impairment of performance on the tests as do naive subjects.

4) Marihuana increases heart rate moderately.

5) No change of respiratory rate follows administration of marihuana by inhalation.

6) No change in pupil size occurs in short term exposure to marihuana.

7) Marihuana administration causes dilation of conjunctional blood vessels.

8) Marihuana treatment produces no change in blood sugar levels."

Why turn-on with Marihuana?

The question of why is an academic one, at this point and perhaps reasons for adolescent drug use are as variable as reasons for adult "use of pills" and alcohol consumption. The best place to witness this is to observe T.V. commercials. There is a pill for every mood and problem; if you are depressed or wound-up, lacking in confidence or overbearing, sluggish in feeling or can't fall asleep etc., etc. Most any five-year-old T.V. "addict" knows why people take pills.

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On the other hand, it has been suggested that a drug sub-culture exists, with its language, symbols, dress and rites and rituals! Zinberg (1967) distinguishes between two separate groups of drug uses, the oblivion-seekers, who use drugs to escape from lives that seem unbearable and hopeless and the experience-seekers. He makes the point that if the experience-seekers are thought of as presenting a social problem, it is their rebellion, not their marihuana or drug use which is viewed with alarm (it also should be pointed out that these two groups typically use different drugs). If this is the case, then observers of students must be able to identify whether their reactions are provoked by that rebellion or because of the use of marihuana.

In contrast to Zinberg's notions of experience-seekers and oblivion-seekers, Gioscia (1967) implies that non-experience is another type of explanation. He evokes the term achrony which is described as "feeling out of step" with the culturally accepted definitions of the "normal" flow of time. For adolescents it is impossible to speak of going somewhere, getting ahead and other folklore expressions of the mobility ethos of our culture. School for many is a holding action, work is often not available, and the Vietnam war distorts time for adolescents. In essence waiting, or involvement based on an inability to engage in self-selected activities, leads to feelings of frustration and timelessness, especially when the waiting is induced by a larger and contradictory cultural norm. Whether real or imagined, marihuana has a striking effect on one's perception of time and moves the user from culturally defined time that is in conflict

and beyond adolescents' control to a different sense of time, that is at least approved of by the "smoker."

Keniston (1969), in an insightful article, places drug users on college campuses in three groups: tasters, seekers and heads. While numbers are unknown it seems probable that the single largest group called "drug abusers" are in reality tasters, and by definition have no place in a discussion of why students use drugs, omission of tasters leaves an estimated less than five percent of the college population classified as drug users.

It is further hypothesized by Keniston that the largest single group of drug users have not been ritualized, but rather use drugs as "part of a more general pattern of experimentation and search for relevance both within and without college experience--it is one aspect of a more encompassing effort to find a meaning in life. Such students can be termed seekers in that they seek in drug use some way of intensifying experience, expanding awareness, breaking out of deadness and flatness, or overcoming depression."

A relatively small but highly visible group for whom drug "use is not just an intermittent assist in the pursuit of meaning but a part of a more general 'turned-on' ideology and membership card to one of the collegiate versions of the hippies' subcultures," are generally called 'heads' by their contemporaries. But even among heads, drug use does not constitute the deeply psychopathological and self-destructive phenomenon it is

sometimes said invariable to be (Keniston, p. 100). The important point is made that for a growing number of students "dropping out" is a way of testing psychological and social limits "as a preparation for returning to the world of action and commitment." The labeling of drug users as "felon" or irresponsible "addicts" makes it more difficult for the "head" to move freely in society.

It seems incredible that marihuana use has become such an impassioned issue in recent years. Marihuana and other drugs have been used in large urban areas by blacks and jazz musicians for years. Alcohol consumption has likewise had extensive and abusive use by high school students over the years. The issues are not new, but what has changed is that "high academic" students, from high status families, are obviously part of the contemporary "drug scene." What is new is a powerful and sophisticated constituency.

Conclusions

Generally studies indicate, and concerned professionals tend to agree (Chief Justice Tauro, 1967), on the following points:

1. In the United States, marihuana is ingested or inhaled to induce mind alteration.

2. Marihuana is capable of precipitating psychosis and causing distortion of distance, time and perception depending upon personality of user, dosage, and environmental context in which drugs are used.

3. Habituation can occur with the use of marihuana as with many other "things."

4. Differential effect occurs within time of use and between times of use.

5. There is currently no medical use of marihuana.

6. As is the case with peyote, marihuana is not part of any religious dogma.

7. Marihuana use is growing at an increased rate, particularly among adolescents.

8. No one can guarantee its use will not be harmful.

Unanswered Questions[1]

1. Does marihuana cause organic injury?

2. What conditions favor continuation of marihuana as opposed to moving to hard drugs?

3. What kind of educational approaches are most effective in reducing misuse?

4. What is the relationship between driving ability and ingesting or inhaling marihuana?

5. Does long-term usage of marihuana have harmful effects?

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[1] For an extended elaboration on these points see Goddard (1969).

Counselor's Role and Responsibility

Samuels (1970) quotes Dr. Stanley Yolles, director of the National Institute of Mental Health, as placing juvenile and adult use of marihuana at about eight million with an expected rise to twelve million. He goes on to make the point that if the law was efficiently enforced, potentially twelve million people would be processed through our legal system. Dr. Yolles advocates a "change from prosecution to a public approach in dealing with drug abuse and especially in colling the marihuana problem."

If a shift from "prosecution" to a "public approach" is to occur, schools and specifically counselors must assume a major part of the responsibility. First, counselors can extend their role as resource for the larger community by extending their knowledge of drug use and drugs. Secondly, the counselor can establish a one-to-one relationship with students who are permissive enough to allow drug related issues to occur.

As a resource person, a counselor is in a position to disseminate information in a selective way. The task of disseminating information about drugs has at least two target populations. One is an already informed group with moderate to extensive experience with marihuana. A second group is those who are uninformed and include students, parents, faculty, and administrators who are either potential drug "users" or have extensive contact with drug "users." In reference to the "informed" group, it is obvious that drug education is not the issue. Unquestionaly, experienced marihuana "users" are not all-knowing, but another program or film

usually brings about the "not again" reaction. For this group, marihuana is an adult-defined problem, rather than a student problem. The more fundamental issues for discussion are categorized by old but appropriate cliches, such as alienation, insecurity, rejection of hypocrisy, etc. An effective program for this group is one that focuses on issues related to marihuana, but not on marihuana or drugs independent of the more fundamental issues.

The uninformed group should be familiarized with the facts and fiction associated with marihuana. Confusion and anxiety about adolescents should not be compounded with confusion and anxiety concerning drugs. In general, it is difficult to legislate attitudes, particularly in regard to marihuana; in addition, people start at such different levels of information and experience that a counselor should be available and programs offered, but not required. If a need is present, and the program and counselors meet the need, students will self-select themselves.

Many of the arguments pertaining to counseling in general are also of concern to students involved in marihuana. However, there are some exceptions--most notably that marihuana is illegal and schools are often identified as an extension of the legal system; in addition, students are often more knowledgeable than counselors. These two situational factors mitigate against "heads" and probably "seekers"; from utilizing traditional counseling settings. An initial goal in counseling is to establish an environment that would allow students to explore issues of drugs. In an environment that is "safe" students soon focus on

the reality of drug effects, both the exaggerated benefits and overstated harmfulness. Student exploration soon turns from marihuana to other self-reflections. A counseling relationship of this nature requires time, it requires counselors to meet students in settings outside of school and office, and it requires a low anxious counselor.

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Dean Ward: 'We Shared In The Loss'

AMHERST — In October a Harvard Undergraduate visiting friends at Amherst College overreacted to an LSD dose and fell to his death from an upper dormitory window.

Shortly after the tragedy, Amherst's Dean of Students Robert A. Ward penned a letter to the men of the college which appeared in the December issue of the college's "Amherst Student."

Since the time of its initial publication the letter has also been reprinted by the School Board of the City of Holyoke and distributed to all students in the Holyoke Public School System.

The letter is dated Oct. 16:

"Gentlemen of the College:

"He was not an Amherst man; he was a visitor. But his death occurred in our community and we shared in the loss. We were shocked by the tragedy and stunned by the senselessness of it. He was young and bright — too bright to surrender his life to the foolish madness blighting a generation. In a week in which we paused to reflect on the waste of life half a world away, it may have been a strange irony that we were starkly faced with meaningless death on our own campus. But that week is nearly gone — and memory fades.

"I will not rehearse the statements made in the past about drugs. Many of us for some time have been apprehensive that a tragedy would come — and last Saturday night it did. Repeated warnings have gone unheeded; it couldn't happen here. I only wish those who ignored those warnings could have spent part of that horrible night waiting in Cooley Dickinson Hospital while life ebbed from the Harvard visitor or part of Sunday afternoon in my office while his parents struggled to comprehend the reality of that day.

"I did not become a Dean to watch a generation of students pollute their sanity or distort their lives, and I confess to a numbing and depressing sense of helplessness. Words are inadequate and deeds seem fruitless.

"More than ever students have taken on themselves the individual responsibility which shapes their lives in all areas. It should be so, but the judicious exercise of such responsibility demands wisdom: I see no wisdom at all in the growing and indiscriminate use of drugs.

"I also see a danger that one major tragedy may obscure other tragedies, smaller perhaps but no less frightening. On a beautiful Saturday afternoon which was in itself a natural stimulant, why the need for some artificial or uncertain drug?

"And where were we all on that night or on any night and when will we awake to the need to replace a disinterested privatism with a sustained concern for troubled people in our community? And why do we tolerate in our midst the profiteers of poison?

"And by what moral right do we pass into the hands of others substances which can threaten their well-being and even their lives? What in God's name is happening to us?

"Last Sunday in a scriptural lesson the timeless chastisement of Thomas was repeated: "Because you did not see, you would not believe." Last Sunday we did see. Now I plead as never before — please believe."

(Signed) Robert A. Ward

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

SARGO #8

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

The Use of Case Studies

Probably the most effective means a guidance director has for improving the counseling his system provides as well as the system's total educational environment is through the study of the individual student. Too often professionals are quick to generalize about student behavior and develop stereotypes that blind them to the unique individual.

The idiographic approach provides a meaningful way to see the individual as he develops over time, and to integrate the various factors that affect his behavior.

Objectives:

The objectives of this SARGO are to train you in the use of a case study as an effective means of:

1. Consolidating those items pertinent to the educational, vocational, and personal history of a student into concise format.

2. Using the information contained in a case history to analyse the student and those of his needs that a school may appropriately meet.

3. Determining apparent needs that may be appropriate for external resource agencies to deal with.

4. Cooperating with your counselors and with teachers to ascertain that adjustments, if any, may be made to render the student's education more effective.

5. Predicting performance in future school years.

TED (Typical Encounter of the Day)

A major purpose of this SARGO is to demonstrate the effective use of a case study as a tool for modifying an

educational program to meet the needs of an individual client.

The case of George has been completed by one of your counselors as a basis for your action.

You are to prepare a written report to be transmitted with the case study to all of George's teachers for their review prior to a case conference. You are to conduct the case conference as a model that you would like all of your counselors to follow in conducting case conferences of their own.

Your report should include consideration of test performances, peer relationships, educational needs, teacher evaluations, parent-school relationships, recommendations, follow-up procedures, and other factors you may wish to develop.

TPE #1

A randomly selected director of guidance will conduct a case conference with George's teachers and counselors.

The principal has requested a recommendation for George's promotion to grade 9 or retention in grade 8.

TPE #2

Conduct a staff meeting with your counselors to critique George's case study, and review the theory and mechanics of preparing a case study.

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Nota bene: The bibliography above is not intended to be conclusive and limiting; there are many texts appropriate to case studies and their usage.

Class of 1972
8th year

GEORGE

George is a handsome boy, with a generally pleasant smile. He is about 5 feet 8 inches tall, and slender at approximately 140 pounds. At first distrustful of the counselor, he became more open with ensuing interviews. George participated willingly at all times in counseling sessions, but his participation was hindered because of an apparent inability to express his thoughts verbally.

George has followed a general curriculum in junior high school with limited success. His English, math and science work is considerably below average, history is only average, and he is taking a remedial reading course. A review of his records indicates that George entered school with average abilities but has "gone down hill" steadily, in achievment. There are indications that his first difficulties were environmentally inspired. He was retained in third grade; then maintained minimum achievement. There are some slight possibilities of improvement. Following a poor first term this year, his grades showed a striking rise to four B's and an A for the second term. Specific grade history may be seen in Table I. Generally, George's elementary school performance was poor but a bare possibility of improvement is apparent in his junior high school performance. His third term is, however, indicating another poor performance and this raises the question of whether he would benefit more from promotion or from retention. The former may provide the incentive that might enable him to succeed in high school; the latter might reinforce his foundations that he could assuredly succeed in high school. At this point, it is a moot point.

George is the seventh of eight siblings; he has five older sisters and one older brother, and one younger brother. The males in the family are surpassed in achievement by the females. His father, a high school graduate, is a disabled worker, who has not worked since George entered school. Allegations are that his major disability is that of excessive drinking. George's mother, also

a high school graduate, is employed as a counter employee in a laundry and dry cleaning establishment. His older brother is a trade school dropout. His younger brother is currently enrolled in elementary school and is reportedly doing reasonably well. Four of his sisters are high school graduates and one attends a nearby community college. Of these sisters not in school, two are secretaries in local business establishments, one is a licensed practical nurse, and one is a company-trained data processor.

Further glimpses of the family are found in the 1962 report of a School Adjustment Counselor who noted "father chronically ill for years - non-specific ailment." All parent-teacher conference records indicate that the mother alone attended. George is apparently the oldest active male in his immediate family environment as his one older brother is married and has several children of his own. He is employed as a laborer with the Department of Public Works.

George has always enjoyed excellent health, having had only the usual childhood diseases. His ninth grade teacher reported that "he is very strong." He is farsighted and must wear glasses for reading.

Although always a cheerful and willing participant in a counseling session, George seems to find it difficult to communicate. He has a manner of hesitating before making any comment or giving any response, either of which tends to be terse. Following every terse verbalization, he appears to struggle to add to what he has said, usually without success. His speech is unimpaired and he seems annoyed that he cannot amplify his remarks. In conversation, he tends to cast his eyes randomly about, and to gesture with hands and arms extensively.

It is a matter of record that George has had adjustment problems. The counselors, report, referred to earlier, contained references to George's feeling "--very much threatened when he has to compete with others," and " George will need a great deal of support and attention." Teacher comments throughout elementary school were restricted to reports of academic deficiencies. It seems reasonable then to infer that his classroom behavior was normal. In contrast

to the others, his sixth grade teacher apparently encountered some behavior problems, as she writes "behavior remains a problem, for he is very strong, but he has improved."

George reported difficulties with his English and math teachers this year, which may be accounted for by George's getting grades of F in the most recent marking term in these two subjects. He reported that the math teacher "has it in for me." He could not give any explanation for his feelings.

George feels rather disdainfully that all the other students are "little kids." He also stated that he would "like to be left alone." Discussion with his teachers indicates that may be trying to deal with his behavior without attempting to isolate or treat the cause of it.

In response to his counselor's question "what would you like to do when you finish school?" George's thoughtful reply was "Something peaceful." Further questioning could elicit no elaboration of this somewhat unusual remark, nor could any stated educational or vocational goal be elicited.

George has selected a general course for next year, with cabinet making as a concurrent vocational course. It is difficult to ascertain if the program selection represents anything more than agreement with counselor suggestions. Repeated probing failed to elicit any positive suggestion from George; he tended usually to wait rather apathetically for the counselor to name alternatives, after which George usually chose the first one named. It is the counselor's estimate that the "best bet" for George would be a vocational education.

A distinct vocational possibility might be that of a clerical position in stores, for example, as as tool crib clerk. This estimate is based on an interpretation of the results of the DAT(L) administered in the fall of 1967. George scored at the 80th percentile in clerical speed and accuracy. He scored at the 50th percentile in arithmetic reasoning and grammar; all other scores were below the 50th percentile.

George has maintained minimal achievement through elementary school. His ninth grade teacher wrote "George is seriously below grade level in all areas and has, for some reason I guess, given up." George has shown some infinitesimal improvement, however, in grades for both 7th and 8th grades. It would still seem highly problematical that he might succeed at a high school level.

During the first marking term this year, George did a programmed learning project for math and a report for science as independent work. Apparently for disciplinary reasons, he is sent to the library every English period for independent reading and study. Upon completion of a unit, he is tested, and then proceeds to the next unit. He states he likes it this way as it gets him "away from the little kids."

George made several statements with reference to homework. Significantly he said of English, "I have to catch up. I study in some spare minutes." The attitude his statements seem to indicate may explain his relatively phenomenal second term grades. Unfortunately they do not explain his third term disaster. Social studies homework consisted of outside reading, of which George said "You need it for class discussion - you need the reading to take part." Of science homework he said "a report topic is up to the student. I don't like that." It would seem he prefers some structure even when the ensuing study is to be independent.

George would seem to be aware of teaching methods utilized by his teachers, as may be seen in Table II. His impressions were, in general, confirmed by the teachers of his courses. Also indicated in the table are George's evaluations of the methods employed. It would appear that he is not attempting to blame the teaching methods for his grade troubles.

George disavows any parental influence, or even interest, in his choice of courses; belligerently asserting that the choices were his. He said he merely

selor's suggestions. It is the counselor's feeling that he concurred with the program that George chose. George's teachers generally concur with the program.

George belongs to no organizations and probing elicited the fact that he "just hangs around with the guys." Asked to indicate who his friends were, George named five boys, all of whom were high school students who were older than George. Observations indicate that he apparently has no cronies among his fellow students in junior high school.

George's records show no formal instances of disciplinary infractions although misbehavior is implied in at least two instances. He cited his present English teacher as unfair for banishing him from class when he told the class to "shut up." He alleged the "bunch of little kids were horsing around" prior to his outcry. George said he was punished and they were not. One specific incident, of which the counselor is aware, occured this year when a teacher ordered George to relinquish a pencil. George refused; the teacher tried to take the pencil from him but George's strength was superior to hers, and he retained the pencil. When the teacher gave up the struggle, George contemptuously snapped the pencil in two and threw it away.

It is difficult to assess George's behavior. The school has not labeled him a "bad boy" or a troublemaker but neither has it, or can it, label him good. There is a general teacher-administrator-counselor tendency to consider George volatile, but not liable to explode unless disturbed.

George has a standardized test record of steadily falling behind his grade level in each year through the seventh. This, his eighth year, has seen a reversal of the downtrend in achievement which possibly may be attributed to the factor of choice of courses. George is choosing his own courses now, and a beginning of improvement, generated by the indicated acceptance of a minimal self responsibility may be inthe offing.

Since George is only one chronological year behind his grade level, it may be hoped that continued opportunity to choose his own program may enable him to continue to improve. Continued counseling would appear indicated in any case.

TABLE I

Term	Course				
	English	Math	Science	Social Studies	Reading
1st	D	D	C	F	F
2nd	B	B	A	B	B
3rd	F	F	D	D	D
4th					

TABLE II

Methods of instruction in order of frequency

English	Math	Science	Social Studies	Reading
Independent study, Reads books in library with test after each chapter.	Lecture. Question and answer. Audio-visual.	Lecture. Audio-visual. Experience projects.	Discussion. Audio-visual. Lecture.	
		General Comments		
Good	Good	Good. "A really good teacher."	Good	

TABLE III

Test Name	Date	SS	%ile	Norms
Lorge Thorndike	1/63	106 IQ		
Lorge Thorndike	12/65	81 IQ		
DAT	1967			
VR		13	30 %ile	
NA		8	5 "	
VR & NA		21	15 "	
AR		29	50 "	
Cl Sp & Acc		43	50 "	
MR		40	40 "	
SR		21	45 "	
SP		52	45 "	
GE		23	60 "	
Iowa Basic	1964			
V			43 %ile	
R			40 "	
Sp			39 "	
Cap			43 "	
Punct			40 "	
Usage			35 "	
Map			56 "	
Graphs			51 "	
Ref			40 "	
Arith Concepts			54 "	
" Problems			43 "	
Total			44 "	

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
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SARGO #9

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Counseling and Counseling Supervision

Objectives:

To demonstrate proficiency in one-to-one counseling and to explain theoretical framework as it relates to counselor performance.

To utilize a client rating scale in assessing counseling process.

To increase trainee's competence in counselor supervision using typescripts and electronic recording devices.

Introduction:

Counselor supervision must be an on-going concern of the director of guidance if he and his staff are to maintain and improve relationships with students, teachers, and parents. It seems important that this be an on-going in-service project included as a normal part of the department's operation. The director of guidance is responsible for establishing and implementing a counselor supervision program. One of the prerequisites of a profession is self-supervision. Unfortunately, supervision too often remains only an experience for pre-service training. It seems imperative that the director of guidance submit himself to supervision by his colleagues, and exercise leadership and supervision of his entire staff, professional and non-professional.

One-way glass, video tape, interview notes, and actual observation in the room are all ways by which supervision of counseling may be effected. Probably one of the most prevalent methods used is with the audio tape recorder. Listening to tapes is a common and useful way for the counselor to obtain immediate feedback. A typescript made from such a recording also provides a unique means of analyzing the content of what has been said. Regardless of budgetary limitations, numerous methods are available to the resourceful director of guidance.

The variety of critical questions faced by students

would seem to be limitless. A major function of the counselor is to facilitate student decision making. Directors of guidance cannot divorce themselves from functioning as counselors because they are in an administrative position.

Typical Personal Encounter (TPE)

Some critical questions will be presented in a film entitled "It's Your Move" New Dimensions, Jericho, N.Y. (*) You will then be asked to assume the role of either counselor or client and carry out a counselling session dealing with one of the questions.

Following the simulated counseling session each person role-playing a client will complete a client evaluation scale. The evaluation will then be discussed with the counselor.

Typical Encounter of the Day (TED)

Tape record a counseling session. Select a 15 minute segment that provides an interaction for which you would like to obtain another professional counselor's comment. Prepare a typescript of the 15 minute segment. These typescripts will be exchanged among members of the class for a thorough review and critique.

Proper typescript procedures for this course include:

a. Double spacing.

b. "Co" indicates "counselor".

c. "Cl" indicates "client".

d. Extended pauses should be noted.

e. Audible expressions such as "mm-hmm", nervous coughs, etc., should be included.

TPE #1

One of your counselors seems threatened by the idea of supervision. He says the director needs to show more trust, and assume that things are going along satisfactorily if no com-

(*) Film, "It's Your Move," New Dimensions in Education, Long Island House, 131 Jericho Turnpike, Jericho, New York, 11753.

plaints have been made by students or parents. In addition, he questions what evaluation criteria for counseling can be applied in one session.

Be prepared to role play with this counselor your reaction to his questions and counter-arguments.

TPE #2

Role-play supervisor and counselor. Alternate roles in evaluating and critiquing each other's typescripts.

TPE #3

Be prepared to demonstrate how to use a tape recorded to another person.

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3. Counseling Psychology, 16, November 1969. Issue is concerned with counseling process and supervision.

4. Counselor Education and Supervision, 6 Fall 1966. This entire issue is devoted to counselor supervision.

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COUNSELOR PERFORMANCE RATING SCALE

James W. Kelz
The Pennsylvania State University

DIRECTIONS

The enclosed scale is designed to facilitate the appraisal of counselor performance in interview situations. It includes eight (8) major categories, the subdivisions of which represent personal and professional aspects of counselor effectiveness. The manual includes both favorable and unfavorable descriptive statements pertinent to the category subdivisions as listed on the rating scale. The purpose of these qualitative statements is to produce greater uniformity of meaning in the categories to be rated.

1. Review the qualitative statements characterizing individual categories to establish a preliminary frame of reference for rating.

2. Position the rating scale in the manual so that category titles are aligned horizontally. This placement allows ready referral to qualitative statements describing category subdivisions.

3. During the observation of the interviews rate each category giving consideration to subdivisions. Circle the number which represents your best estimate of the degree to which a counselor fulfills each category. The number values are anchored as follows:

1	2	3	4	5
(Unsatisfactory)		(Acceptable)		(Outstanding)

If your estimate is intermediate between unsatisfactory (1) and acceptable (3) circle number two (2); if your estimate is intermediate between acceptable (3) and outstanding (5) circle number four (4).

UNFAVORABLE	CATEGORY	FAVORABLE
	APPEARANCE	
Appears "sloppy" and inappropriately attired		Appears well-groomed and appropriately attired
Appears tense; displays overconfidence		Appears relaxed; displays confidence
	EXPRESSION	
Mumbles; talks inaudibly; rambles in presentation	Articulation	Enunciates clearly; modulates voice; expresses self concisely
Is ungrammatical in English usage	Informat rrectness	Uses correct English without seeming overly formal

UNFAVORABLE	CATEGORY	FAVORABLE
	RELATIONSHIP	
Displays boredom or impatience; is condescending and patronizing	Interest	Exhibits sincere interest in counselee
Makes counselee feel ill-at-ease by unduly hurrying him; prying	Rapport	Helps counselee feel at ease by beginning interview in a warm friendly way
Dominates conversation; prods counselee; tries to be subtle or shrewd	Permissiveness	Helps counselee to talk freely about his problems; responds straight-forwardly
Becomes emotionally involved in counselee's problems; lectures counselee about proper solutions for his problems	Empathy	Avoids passing judgment; reflects counselee's feelings; gives him opportunity to identify, analyze, and solve his own problems
	COMMUNICATION	
Interrupts; dawdles; fills pauses with idle chatter	Continuity	Allows counselee to set pace; does not allow interview to lose direction; uses pauses productively
Strays from subject	Response Appropriateness	Makes comments consistent with what counselee is trying to convey
	KNOWLEDGE	
Bluffs way rather than admitting ignorance	Practical Knowledge	Demonstrates practical knowledge related to problem areas
Fails to apply information to counselee's problems	Application	Utilizes information
	PERCEPTION	
Misses cues and flounders in getting counselee's meaning	Cue Alertness	Is alert in picking up cues and following through
Overemphasizes "superficial" problems; jumps to conclusions	Problem Identification	Isolates the counselee's central problem
	INTERPRETATION	
Stresses non-pertinent information	Relevancy	Interprets the significant information revealed in interview
Misinterprets	Accuracy	Interprets accurately
Confuses counselee by being vague and evasive; uses	Clarity	Interprets information clearly; uses vocabulary consistent with

UNFAVORABLE	CATEGORY	FAVORABLE
	INTERPRETATION CONT.	
Makes biased or critical statements	Neutrality	Avoids bias and criticism; refrains from reassuring when facts are unfavorable
Does not involve counselee in assessment of self-information	Counselee Involvement	Enlists counselee participation in assessing information objectively
	TERMINATION	
Allows interview to extend beyond allotted time; ends abruptly		Respects time limitations; makes provisions for summary
Allows interview to degenerate into casual social conversation; terminates interview awkwardly		Terminates interview politely and smoothly

SCALE DEVELOPMENT

The Counselor Performance Rating Scale is an outgrowth of doctoral research conducted in 1961 by James W. Kelz at The Pennsylvania State University. A detailed description of it formulation, evaluation, and subsequent use can be found in the author's thesis entitled "The Development and Evaluation of A Measure of Counselor Effectiveness"; a condensed version is included in the book Counselor Selection, Education, Supervision available from the Counselor Education Press.

Briefly, the first step in the construction of the rating scale was the selection of qualities to be rated, i.e., components of counselor effectiveness. These qualities were derived primarily from a logical analysis of the elements which characterize the effective counselor, as set forth by experts in the counseling field. Characteristics were grouped into categories considered both essential to "good counseling" and important and feasible for measurement. The general categories were further divided into several more concrete and limited aspects of the qualities to be rated and descriptive statements formulated to establish a more uniform frame of reference for raters using the scale. The design and contents of the rating format evolved from the author's research subjected to evaluation and modification by a panel of experts in the area of counseling prior to its approval and use in counselor effectiveness experimentation.

Kelz, James W., "The Development and Evaluation of a Measure of Counselor Effectiveness," Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XLIV, No. 5, January 1966, pp. 511-516.

Not included, but intended as part of SARGO #10 is, "American Education's Annual Guide to OE Programs," American Education, August-September, 1971

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
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SARGO #10

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Community Resource Agencies

Objectives:

To increase the trainee's skills in initiating cooperation with, and obtaining it from community resource agencies and personnel.

Introduction:

The school system and its pupil personnel services cannot be all things to all students. External aid must necessarily be enlisted on occasion. That aid may come from church groups, service clubs, civic agencies, local businesses, and others. It would appear to be a directorial responsibility to be aware of, and in contact with, resources external to the school, that he may make appropriate referrals or requests for assistance at those times when services beyond the capabilities of the school system are needed for effective guidance.

Examples of needs requiring external aid might include work-study programs, career seminars, delinquency, drugs, and mental health. It is incumbent upon the director of guidance to initiate cooperation with community resource agencies and personnel, as required.

Guidance directors should also recognize that their knowledge and skills can contribute to the effectiveness of the resource agencies, themselves. The director's skills in human relations, understanding of youth, organization and administration theory, measurement and clinical procedures, and the education processes would be of aid to outside agencies.

TED #1 - Typical Encounter of the Day

You want to enlist the participation of the pastors, priests, and rabbis of your local houses of worship in a series of four ecumenical breakfasts, dedicated to an examination of the problems of youth.

You offer to speak breifly at each breakfast, on a major youth problem and on how you would like the churches to work in concert with the schools in ameliorating the problem.

It will be necessary for you to choose four problems critical to the youth of your town; what you as director of guidance offer to their solution; what you would hope the churches of the town will offer, to effect the sought-for amelioration.

You will not only have to know your own capabilities, you will also have to have an approximate idea of the churches' capabilities. Since this is essentially a selling program, you must be in command of anough facts about youth and your guidance program that you may present convincing reasons for the church's cooperation.

Present your proposal in outline form, within a letter addressed to the president of the local ecumenical council.

TED #2 - Typical Encounter of the Day

Prepare a letter to the mayor of your town, in which you strongly urge the establishment of a Yough Center in an empty store in the downtown section of your community. Indicate reasons for such a center, what basic equipment and personnel would be needed. Include also a statement of how you would help.

TPE #1 - Typical Personal Encounter

Present a ten (10) minute speech to a service club luncheon. The members have asked you particularly to respond to questions they have in their minds concerning an article that recently appeared in the local newspaper. There may also be questions from the floor after your speech. (See attached article).

TPE #2 - Typical Personal Encounter

You are concerned about gaining the cooperation of community leaders for your guidance program, that it might better serve the youth of the area. Because of their tight time schedules, you have only a ten (10) minute appointment with one of the following people. Within this ten minute period, you have to sell yourself to him; convince him that he should be vitally concerned about youth and the schools; that

he has something to contribute. Suggest concrete ways by which he may help. Adjust the style of your approach to fit the individual you confront.

a. Chief of Police.
b. President of the town's major industry.
c. Mayor, or town manager.
d. Director of area Mental Health Board.
e. District Juvenile Judge.
f. Executive Director of the Chamber of Commerce.

(As a helpful basis for the TPE above, it might behoove you actually to interview a community leader to inquire about his views of youth and guidance programs).

Suggested Bibliography:

Peters, Herman J., and Bruce Shertzer, Guidance: Program Development and Management, 2nd ed, 1969, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, Chapter 13.

Shrum, Edison E., "Heredity Bigger Factor Than Environment, Says Writer," Sedan Times-Star, Sedan, Kansas, December 22, 1966.

When Families Excel

HEREDITY BIGGER FACTOR THAN ENVIRONMENT, SAYS WRITER

by Edison E. Shrum

Everyone is aware of fads in clothing, in music, in art; and that these fads can reach bizarre and wholly absurd extremes. Less well known are the equally extreme fads in political faiths and myths.

One of these, so charactoristic of periods of radical liberalism, is an unwavering faith in the power of social and economic environmental factors to control the destiny, character, achievements, and general worth of an individual or group of individuals. Put a man in good clothes, a good house, give him plenty of money, and send him to school and he will, according to his faith, become a most worthy citizen. It doesn't matter that the man was an ass of the first water when he entered said educational institution, he needs must exit a wise man. Ancestorage, also biophysical, biochemical, and cosmic environments are, in the view of these gentlemen, largely without significance.

The proponents of this faith apparently ignore or discount such studies as those made by Winship on the remarkable Edwards family. Mr. Winship found that, in 150 years, this family (all descendants of Jonathan Edwards) produced 100 lawyers, 38 judges, numerous congressmen, more than a hundred college professors, 75 military officers, and one vice-president of the United States. Many of these men were leaders in their fields. They edited, for example, 18 important journals, wrote 135 significant books, served their nation in important diplomatic posts overseas, and directed leading businesses and industries in 33 states and several foreign countries.

Aaron Burr, the vice-president, was the nearest thing to a blacksheep that the family ever produced. Even the one branch of the Edwards family that, through financial reverses, was unable to get a formal education, was highly worthy, and perhaps, in the real sense, better educated and more successful than their supposedly more fortunate relatives. For, as Winship said: "An Edwards did not absolutely need the college and the university in order to be eminently scholarly in any special line." They simply had the inborn capability of high and worthy achievement, plus the ambition and drive to develop and exploit these inherited abilities.

On the other hand, the so-called Jukes family, studied by Dugdale back in the 1870's, in slightly less time, and through Max and his astonishing daughter-in-law, Margaret, "the mother of criminals," presented the state of New York with a total of 280 adult paupers, 140 criminals and offenders, 60 habitual thieves, 7 murderers, 50 prostitutes, 30 cases actually prosecuted for bastardy, 440 known cases of venereal disease, and 300 prematurely born children requiring special attention. In addition, many of the Jukes were imbeciles or completely insane. None acquired the equivalent of a grade school education. Only 20 of the entire 1,200 individuals studied bothered to learn a trade, and half of the 20 had this learning forced on them while they were serving terms in the state penitentiary.

A Jukes follow-up study made by Estabook in 1915, showed that they were still in business, having produced by that time, a total of 378 prostitutes, 86 of whom had graduated by then to first-class brothel keepers.

Gondard's excellent 1912 work on the Kallikak family is even more pertinent, because it involves both good and bad branches. The bad branch descended from a bastard son of Martin Kallikak and a feeble-minded girl. Goddard found that of the 480 people descended from this deplorable union, 143 were feeble-minded, 36 were bastards, 33 were prostitutes or notoriously immoral, 8 were actually brothel

keepers, 24 were alcoholics, 3 were epileptics, and 82 were so weak that they died in infancy. Only 46 of the whole 480 could actually be classed as approaching normalcy.

Later Martin Kallikak married a decent Quaker girl of good family. And of the 496 people descended from this union, only one could be classed as mentally subnormal. There were no criminals or epileptics and only two alcoholics. Many were doctors, lawyers, educators, judges, etc. In fact Goddard could find nothing but good citizenship among the members of this branch of the Kallikak family.

Poellman, in Germany, made an equally interesting study of the "Zeros," the name he gave to the disreputable descendants of a drunken woman. These, by the sixth generation, numbered 800, and included such choice people as 181 prostitutes, 102 beggars, 197 bastards, 7 murderers, 54 poorhouse paupers, and 76 criminals who had actually been convicted of serious crimes other than murder.

Today's Zeros would not be so troubled. Bastardy would be rewarded with pensions, the same might well be true of poorhouse pauperism and beggary. The murderers and prostitutes would likely receive no more than a figurative "slap on the wrist." For the liberals now "know" that crime is simply a matter of "frustrations" leading to "anti-social attitudes;" sometimes, as in the case of the male criminal, simply because he "identified" with his heinous, rascally mother instead of with his father. Crimes of violence, too, are merely "compulsive attacks," antecedent frustrations having been responsible for the "irresistable compulsion" that led to the act.

Heredity, in the radical liberal's view, plays little or no part in these matters. Yet we recall that some years back, when an unusually brutal spur-of-the-moment murder was committed in our region, we found on investigation that the murderer's father was a drunkard, his grandfather a suicide, his great-grandmother an asylum inmate, his great aunt a fighter and brawler; and of his cousins, one had beaten a man to death and another had been killed in a drunken brawl. In addition, it was common knowledge that the whole family was afflicted with explosive tempers.

To cattlemen in Oklahoma or Kansas, or to most any hog breeders in Iowa, this would be a simple matter of heredity. They have learned, by long hard experience, that nervous scrub stock begets nervous scrub stock. But the truth of the matter may be that the influence of heredity is even more significant than these practical stockmen suspect, extending perhaps into such matters as behavior complexes, certain organic weaknesses, and maybe even into the actual timing of the first external manifestations of these.

We note, for example, the Barnett twins, Edwin and Edward, born 24 hours apart, and died at the age of 83 in New York and California--24 hours apart!

Then there was that 1961 study that dealt with a set of identical twin sisters who had both had convulsions during pregnancy, both had had non-cancerous breast tumors, both had suffered from facial nerve paralysis, both had developed pernicious anemia, both had been afflicted with diverticulitis and hernia of the colon.

Pertinent, too, is the 1957 report out of Pittsburgh, Pa., that tells of a similarly amazing parallelism involving identical twin boys, then 14 years old. When they were five years old, both, on different occasions, fell on the cellar steps cutting their chins. Nine years later one of the twins broke his left leg while playing basketball on a street near his home. Three days afterward his twin brother broke the same bone in the same leg while playing basketball at the same spot and at approximately the same hour and minute of the day.

Also there was the strange case related by that noted 19th century scientist, Francis Galton. Galton told of a man who, when fast asleep, was sometimes observed to raise his right arm over his face and then let his wrist fall heavily across the bridge of his nose, causing occasional heavy bruises. After this man's death, his son's wife noticed this same peculiarism developing in the son, involving again only the right arm. And subsequently, one of the daughters of this son was noted to have inherited this same strange trick of behavior.

All of which, it seems to me, is pretty convincing evidence that heredity and cosmic environment, rather than economic and social environment, determine the individual man's capabilities and limitations. Recognition of this has not come simply because it has been the most censored fact of the century. You can get all sorts of splendid books on the breeding of livestock, but just try to find something of worth on human heredity. The hog raiser knows that to ignore breeds and individual superiorities is to court disaster, while whole nations remain blissfully unaware of whether or not this knowledge applies to them.

Taken from THE SEDAN TIMES-STAR, December 22, 1966, Sedan, Kansas.

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

SARGO #11

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Preparation of a Program or Research Prospectus for Outside Funding

Introduction:

The enactment of federal legislation Title XXI, FSEA has greatly expanded resources for educators in conducting research and in introducing new programs. Guidance directors no longer can excuse themselves or their institutions for inability to collect the necessary information, purchase the necessary time, personnel, materials, and services to improve the effectiveness of guidance services or the total institution.

Private funds and corporations also are available to support worthy and useful projects. Directories are available of such organizations in most libraries.

The U. S. Office of Education has established a number of regions in the United States. Regional coordinators are available for consultation and assistance in preparing proposals. They also serve as coordinators for proposals in their districts amounting to $10,000 or less. State departments of education have also appointed coordinators for federal funding on the Elementary and Secondary Education Act to aid schools and staff members.

Distribution of research and development funds has not been equal to all schools or regions of the United States. Some school districts have been gaining a disproportionate amount of the funds due to the initiative of their administrations and staff members. Often the schools needing the funds the most are the least likely to have the personnel or the information necessary to submit proposals.

Guidance directors are in a unique position to seek answers to questions that relate to problems of the students. Leadership can be given by providing timely information on available funds for faculty members when they seek to get data or to innovate new programs. Directors can not only provide leadership for their school or clinic, but may also propose programs or conduct research themselves.

In the United States, industry spends up to 10 percent of its gross income on research and development. Schools, on the other hand, allocate less than 1/10 of 1 percent of their educational expenditures for research. It is alleged that some states have had to return money to the U.S. Office of Education because of lack of application of fundable projects from the schools.

Objectives:

1. To demonstrate skill in the identification and statement of a problem or research question related to guidance services.

2. To communicate knowledge of questionnaire or scale development, basic research designs, and funding sources.

3. To demonstrate competence in preparing a program or research prospectus to be used in soliciting for possible funding.

4. To demonstrate the ability to make an oral presentation to the potential funding authority, explaining why your project should be funded, and your capability to direct it.

TED - Typical Encounter of the Day:

Prepare a two or three page program or research prospectus which responds to a letter your superintendant received from the state department of education, asking for submission of ideas which might be funded. Use the following outline in the preparation of your prospectus.

Project title:
Applicant organization: (Your school)
Project director: (Who)
Submitted by:
Duration:
Anticipated cost:
Date transmitted:
Description of project.
a. Problem and objectives.
b. Procedures.
c. Personnel.
d. Facilities.
e. Evaluation.
f. Use of results.

TPE #1 - Typical Personal Encounter of the Day

Your prospectus, along with several others, has been considered potentially worthy for final screening by the funding authority. You have been invited to appear before a reviewing board to amplify your prospectus and further justify it. The board will conduct fifteen (15) minute interviews with each of the proposers in order to decide whose project will be funded.

Randomly selected directors will appear before a committee of trainees role-playing as members of the funding body. At the conclusion of the interviews, the project to be funded will be chosen by vote of the committee.

TPE #2

Role play a telephone call from a concerned parent who wants to know why a school supported research project is including only a random 50 percent of the sixth grade students in an experimental group.

The following material is attached:

1. A counselor's Guide to Federal Aid Programs.
2. The Construction of Questionnaires for Surveys in Education, by Gerald Lumney.
3. Suggestions for the Preparation of Educational Research Proposals, by David Krathwohl.
4. Small Project Research Regional Research Program, Oct., 1967.

Suggested Bibliography

1. _____, Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, Research Guidelines for High School Counselors, New York, College Entrance Examination Board, 1967.

2. Kerlinger, Fred N., Foundations of Behavioral Research, 1964, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

3. Mouly, George J., The Science of Educational Research, 1963, New York, American Book Company.

4. Good, Carter V., Introduction to Educational Research, 2nd ed., 1968, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts Division of Meredith Publishing Company.

SAMPLE PROSPECTUS

Project Title: Statewide Training Program For Support Personnel in Occupational Resource Centers in Vocational and Comprehensive High Schools to Function as Agents for Occupational Information, Job Placement, and Career Development.

Applicant Organization:
Amherst-Pelham Regional School District
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002

Project Director:
Mr. Leo Vigneault, Director
School Counselor
Amherst-Pelham Senior High School
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002
Tel. 413-549-3710

Mrs. Marilyn Singer
School Counselor, Amherst Public Schools

Mrs. Billie Howes
Director Amherst Resource Center

Dr. Ronald H. Fredrickson
Associate Professor
School of Education
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002

Submitted by:
Mr. Ronald Fitzgerald
Supt. of Schools
Amherst-Pelham Regional School District
Amherst, MA 01002
Tel. 419-549-3690

Duration:
Immediately - June 30, 1971. Level I
(To extend to a three-year project)
FY 71 - Level II
FY 72 - Level III

Date Transmitted: April 22, 1970

This proposal recognizes the need and desire that many young people have to learn more about the real world of work and how they can best understand and make decisions about their own goals in terms of that occupational world. Occupational choice determines a large number of factors about an individual - educational level, socio-economic status, where he will live, clothes he will wear and often times who he or she will marry.

Guidance counselors in their attempt to help in this occupational choice process are often fixated, because of time and other limitations, on college or post-high school educational choices. They are also perceived

by students, especially the non-college bound youngsters, as part of "The establishment" and uninformed and inexperienced in a world of work many of them will face.

This proposal focuses on school guidance offices in their attempts to use all available occupational information and materials to meet the needs of their students. The day of utilization of the single textbook or occupational booklet is gone. Materials that have "soul" and speak with meaning are often found in widely scattered places.

The matching of the student's interests with appropriate materials and experiences requires special skills but not professional expertise. The utilization of occupational and instructional materials is as often left to chance as it is left to the student's perserverance and his home influence.

This statewide training proposal for paraprofessionals will attack this problem through development of the occupational resource center concept, with its materials and equipment, in the guidance office and the manning of it by support personnel.

The best materials and equipment in an occupational information resource center has an inherent limitation when compared to first-hand observation. A complete program must provide for field trips to local industries, business and institutions that hire high school people. There must be built up a liaison between the guidance offices and employers that will best serve students. This last statement is one that has been made by guidance people for many years but its implementation has been mediocre and generally ineffective. The main reasons for this are counselor time limitation and counselor staff limitation.

To break out of the time staff limitation dilemma the innovative key here is in the training of the counselor aide who would specialize in the occupational information and the employment phase of students. A counselor aide, with adequate training and working under the direction of the professional counselor, would make possible effective activity in the proper function of the occupational resource center in rendering assistance to students and in extending the arm of the guidance office into the work-a-day world by supervision of student field trips. The aide would also render the guidance office more effective in maintaining local employment information for the counselors' use in assisting students in actual job placement.

The ultimate objectives from the three-year training program of support personnel are as follows:

1. Intensify student use of occupational and related information through increased availability of materials.

2. Aid counselors in establishing and operating work study programs.

3. Develop and maintain materials and activities in the Occupational Resource Center in guidance offices.

4. Aid all students, especially the individuals planning to enter the world-of-work immediately after high school, in meaningful career development. Also aid counselors and teachers in gaining more knowledge about the world-of-work.

Training Program

A three-year statewide training program is proposed to train sides to be employed in any vocational or comprehensive school in Massachusetts - public or private - which will commit itself to the purposes of "Exemplary Programs and Projects in Occupational Education" funding guidelines. Three levels of job proficiency have been conceptualized (See Appendix A). This exemplary project proposal would train 15 paraprofessionals through three-week intensive pre-service training program, summer 1970, plus in-service follow-up workshop and field visits with each trainee during the 1970-71 school year, a two-week in-service training session, summer 1971, and a one-week in-service training session, summer 1972. By the end of each summer 1970, 71. 72, the aides will have demonstrated Level I, II, III tasks respectively. Pending evaluation by counselors, employee and students, the 15 paraprofessionals in the proto-type training program in FY 1970, 30 new level I trainees would be added in FY 1971 and 30 in FY 1972.

	Level I	Level II	Level III
1970	15		
1971	30	15	
1972	30	30	15

The training program would be exemplary in that it used specific proficiency tasks differentiated by three levels, was statewide, included employers, sought trainees from disadvantaged groups, established and manned occupational resource centers in guidance offices in Massachusetts.

The new junior high school in Amherst would provide the instructional setting.

Cost would probably run about $50,000 plus each year dependent upon financial inducement to school districts and number of aides to be trained.

Appendix A

The tasks of the support personnel are viewed in three levels. Sample activities are as follows:

Level I.

1. Maintain a file of test booklets.
2. Prepare notices of meetings and prepare name cards.
3. Check with students re-applying to taking college boards and other such tests.
4. Tabulate student responses as to the occupations they would like to have more information about.
5. Remove from file of occupational literature all publications more than five-years old. Give these materials to the counselor to evaluate.
6. Maintain a chart of post-high school plans for seniors: college acceptances, armed forces, jobs accepted.
7. Operate office and classroom equipment: typewriter, mimeograph, ditto, overhead projector, filmstrip and movie projectors.

Level II.

1. Make surveys of student summer activities.
2. Secure follow-up information of a routine nature according to a general follow-up plan.
3. Maintain for the counselor a list or card file of companies which have hired former students, cross-indexed by occupation.
4. Obtain and maintain routine information on the scope and character of the world of work.
5. Prepare standardized reports and contacts with placement agencies and their personnel.
6. Search for new placement resources that may be useful to the counselor and to counselees.
7. Be able to use Dictionary of Occupational Titles (D.O.T.)
8. Maintain a library of vocational literature for counselees.
9. Establish schedule for providing necessary information to students about tests - i.e. college boards and Naitonal Merit
    (a) when and where to apply
    (b) sources of additional information
    (c) when and where tests will be administered
    (d) when and where to get test results
10. Describe staff and material available to groups, as an information resource person.
11. Write letter of inquiry for audio-visual catalogs and materials.
12. Be responsible for film, filmstrip and recording libraries. (Care of location).

Level III.

1. Plot expectancy tables.
2. Interview potential employers, noting information for the counselors and students.
3. Assist students to obtain information on training and apprenticeship programs.
4. During freshman orientation explain the role and functions of paraprofessionals as part of the guidance program.
5. Contact various sources for needed records and related information relevant to counseling, i.e. previous schools for transfer students.
6. Obtain and maintain routine information on the scope and character of the world of work with current reference to employment trends, in accordance with instructions established by the counselor.
7. Make surveys of placement conditions and trends as requested by the counselor.
8. Through appropriate channels, establish and maintain working relationships with organized placement agencies in the community.
9. To check the authenticity of a specific piece of occupational information, contact persons currently employed in that occupation (possible sources: parents and friends).
10. Telephone job sites, industries, for the possibility of field trips. Discuss their preferred time for visitors, number of students who may attend.
11. Develop specific placement opportunities for individual cases not handled through cooperation with other placement agencies.
12. Assist the students in preparing for jobs by using role playing techniques in job inquiries and interviews.
13. Assist the student in preparing for job readiness in discussions covering these points:
    (a) application blanks
    (b) interviews
    (c) placing and answering ads
    (d) social security cards
14. Execute prepared follow-up of drop-outs and graduates.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES FOR SURVEYS IN EDUCATION

by

Gerald H. Lunney

One method currently employed to gather information in the field of education is the survey which uses a questionnaire or interview in order to obtain the data it needs for administrative decisions or to enlarge the body of knowledge of educational thought. Various people have described the anatomy of questionnaires. Lazarsfeld (1937) lists the following requirements for a good questionnaire:

> "1. A good questionnaire should make it easy to obtain the necessary information from the respondent.
>
> 2. It should take into account the influence which its own wording might have upon the replies of the respondent.
>
> 3. It should, by adequate formulation and arrangement, lay the groundwork for the sound analysis and successful interpretation of the returns."

Bowley (1937) also lists principles for the design of questionnaires. In his view questions should: "1) ask for the minimum information needed for the purpose at hand; 2) be those which the informant is able to answer; 3) require an answer of a 'yes' or 'no', or a simple number, or something equally definite and precise; 4) be such as will be answered truthfully and without bias; and, 5) be not unnecessarily inquisitorial."

Even when the above criteria hold, others state that although surveys can be considered research, their scientific status may be questioned. "The reason for this is that scientific knowledge must consist of an organized body of generalizations that will permit the prediction of events which have not yet occurred and which are not predicted on the basis of what might be called common sense. The survey does not aspire to develop an organized body of scientific laws but provides information useful in the solution of local problems." (Travers, 1964).

The survey with its use of questionnaires and interviews can thus be viewed as a somewhat rigorous study of educational problems. Although it may not be scientific per se, the survey adopts the approach and to some extent the methodology of the scientist; it contributes to education because it helps provide solutions for those problems it is meant to solve; and, because of the information it reveals, it prepares the way for future, more "scientific" study in the field of education.

General Considerations

Scope. The purpose of this paper is limited. It does not purport to contain enough information to enable the part-time educational researcher to become an expert in the use of survey research. It does not, in fact, intend to cover all aspects of survey research in great detail. The scope of this paper is limited to the construction of instruments within the frameworks listed above and to serve two groups of people who have an interest in conducting surveys in education.

The first group is comprised of those people who wish to conduct an informal study on a limited scale. This paper should contain enough details to enable them to construct a questionnaire sufficient for their needs. As far as sampling and the analysis of the data collected are concerned, the nature of these informal studies should be such that they either eliminate these problems or make them so basic that a minimum of help from a research consultant can solve them.

The second group toward which this paper is aimed consists of those people who are interested in doing a rigorous study but perhaps on a one-time-only basis or who do not wish to become expert in conducting survey research. For these people consultation with and assistance by a research consultant is a must. The consultant will determine the best procedure for sampling subjects

for the survey and the appropriate analysis for the obtained data. In this case, the paper will give the individual an outline which will enable him to communicate with the consultant, will prepare him for the pitfalls which concern the consultant, will give him an insight into how the consultant attempts to solve the problems presented, and will give him a framework by which he will be able to follow the advice he receives from the consultant.

If the person wishing to do survey research does not feel he fits into either of these categories, a formal course in survey research including practice in sampling, questionnaire construction, and analysis of results would be recommended.

Before briefly discussing a list of the steps which comprise the whole of survey research, some discussion must be presented about the differences between questionnaires and interviews. A questionnaire is a form, distributed--usually by mail--to selected individuals, to which they are requested to respond on their own initiative and which they are asked to return to the person initiating the study. Because people are being asked to respond, the questionnaire must not be prohibitive on any dimension. People will refuse to complete questionnaires which are too long, too vague, too complicated, or require too much effort. The form, then, must be short, concise, and direct; and, for the most part, must consist of questions which can be answered by checking a response or a position on a scale. Needless to say, the investigator must provide the means for the return of the completed form.

An interview on the other hand is a face-to-face encounter between a questioner and an individual. Because of his training, the interviewer can obtain a certain depth by inquiring into the motivation behind the answers the individual makes and can obtain efficiency by passing questions which do not apply to the individual. The interview, then, has more flexibility than the questionnaire. (With poorly trained interviewers, this flexibility can be detrimental rather than beneficial.)

A certain amount of controversy has arisen concerning which method is better in survey research. Actually, both can be quite valuable. The person interested in conducting the survey must weigh the advantages of each. One set of advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires as compared to interviews follows:

Advantages	Disadvantages
1. Permits a wider distribution of the sample where such distribution is desirable.	1. Follow-ups by mail or by personal interview are necessary to interpret omissions.
2. A smaller field staff is required than is the case of personal interviews.	2. There is no reasonable assurance that the respondents are representative of the entire population unless callbacks are made of the non-respondents.
3. Cost per questionnaire is lower.	3. Requires a longer period of time.
4. People are likely to be more frank on some questions, especially among the better educated groups.	4. The causes or reasons for the respondent's actions or attitudes cannot be obtained by mail questionnaire.
5. Opinions of all family members are readily obtainable.	5. There is no assurance that the replies are those of the person to whom the questionnaire is addressed.
6. The higher income classes, especially busy executives, are more easily approachable by questionnaire.	6. It cannot reach illiterates and yields very low response rates from certain other groups; e.g., poorly educated people.

(Ferber, 1949)

The decision as to which should be used must be made by the individual conducting the survey. The main problem with questionnaires is non-response. Studies have shown that non-response is not random (Wallace, 1954). If there is a large percentage of non-respondents, the conclusion that the obtained results are biased is probably valid. A cover letter with the questionnaire explaining in general terms the nature of the study being made and strongly requesting that the individual cooperate will probably be effective, especially when surveying co-professionals. Also, follow-up letters should be sent in order to encourage responses. Some investigators have made personal telephone calls to non-respondents. While effective, this approach is probably too expensive for the majority of surveys.

This leads to the major problem with interviews which is expense. Interviewers are necessary and they cost money, as does their training . . . and interviewers do need training. The investigator must weigh this possibility of non-respondent bias versus the cost of interviewers. Since the focus of this paper is on the informal survey or the one-shot study, the points discussed will be mainly emphasizing the questionnaire. However, with the exceptions mentioned above, the same general format can be used for both the questionnaire form and the form used by the interviewer. If the researcher decides to use interview techniques, some of the references mentioned in the bibliography will give specific points for interview techniques (see especially Backstrom and Hursh, 1963).

Steps in Conducting a Survey. The first and most important step to be made when initiating a survey is the development of thorough knowledge of the subject of the survey. Although this may seem to be a truism, it is a point worth discussing. This thorough knowledge of the subject includes knowledge of previous surveys and other research on the topic. Time spent in obtaining this knowledge can be economical. The investigator may find that someone has already provided the answers in a previous study, thus making his proposed study unnecessary. He may also discover some of the problems others have had in conducting surveys similar to the proposed study and can then attempt to avoid these pitfalls. A thorough knowledge of the problem will be valuable in helping the researcher answer the questions he will face in other steps in conducting the survey. He must know the problem well before he can state hypotheses about the relationships between various aspects of the problem. A deep knowledge of the problem will help him make certain decisions about the nature of the sampling plan he must develop. In fact, a complete knowledge is necessary so that the investigator will know if a survey is an appropriate way to solve the problems he is interested in solving.

The next step in conducting the survey is to formulate the hypotheses related to the problem which might be of interest to the investigator. This does not mean that all of them will be answered by this particular survey. By making a list of the hypotheses of interest, the researcher is giving structure to his study. He sees the various relationships which will have to be determined in the study. If an hypothesis relates race, sex, and age to different attitudes on some questions, he knows he must determine the race, sex, and age of the respondents.

The third step is the determination of the scope of the survey. The investigator must glean from his list of hypotheses those which are essential for the particular survey he is conducting. Since his questionnaire cannot be too long, he must achieve a balance. The questionnaire must contain only those questions which are necessary, but at the same time it must be comprehensive enough to provide information to make the study worthwhile.

The main focus of this paper is on the fourth step in conducting the survey. This is the construction of the questionnaire. Since this will be covered more thoroughly in the specific considerations, just a few points need be mentioned now. Constructing a questionnaire is similar to constructing a test. This is another reason why the researcher must have a thorough knowledge of the problem he is investigating. Without this knowledge he would be like a teacher who would attempt to make up a test on a subject about which she knew nothing. The main difference between a questionnaire and a test is that a questionnaire has no wrong answers. Thus, any book on test construction will give the researcher clues on how to write questionnaire items. As with a test, there are several steps to constructing a questionnaire. The first step is the formulation of a rough draft. This is similar to collecting all the items a teacher can for a specific test. The investigator should then re-examine and revise the questionnaire to improve ambiguous items and eliminate weak alternatives or items which do not seem to fit the scope of the

survey. Next, the questionnaire should be pre-tested to see how the items do, in fact, perform. The teacher does this same thing when she uses items from files which contain items of proven effectiveness. Finally, the researcher must edit and specify procedures for the use of the questionnaire. This means elimination of items which did not provide the information they were designed to obtain, perhaps the inclusion of more items which will provide that information (a questionnaire may be pre-tested several times before it is ready for final use), and improving the instructions and format so that the questionnaire can be easily completed by the respondent.

The step following the construction of the questionnaire is the selection of the respondents. Actually, the possible respondents should be kept in mind when the questionnaire is developed. A questionnaire pre-tested on college students might fail completely when slum residents are asked to respond to it. Sampling is a very technical subject in itself. This is one aspect of the study about which the investigator should see a research consultant. The only other point to be made concerning sampling in this paper is that often researchers measure the whole population, especially in a survey on a problem of limited geographic scope. If the total population is measured, statistical techniques are unnecessary. Statistics are appropriate only when the investigator randomly samples from a population and wishes to infer his results to that population. If the researcher measures the whole population, he need merely summarize the results and report them as a description of the population.

The sixth step is the distribution of the questionnaire. This also depends on the scope of the study, but the mail is the usual way to distribute questionnaires. This does not mean it is the only way to distribute them. The investigator should use any method which will put questionnaires into respondents' hands and insure a reasonable percentage of return. (The writer once attended a play where questionnaires about reactions to characters were randomly distributed with the playbills.) The main point concerning distribution of

questionnaires was made previously. A covering letter should accompany the questionnaire informing the prospective respondent of the person or institution conducting the study, the reason for the study, and enough of the nature of the study to motivate the individual to complete and return it without giving him enough information to bias his way of responding. The other point to be made is, to insure response, the questionnaire should be distributed at a time which will not be so hectic that the questionnaire will be forgotten or thrown away without being considered. This is similar to the admonition to teachers that they should not give tests on the day of the "big game" or right before a holiday. The investigator should aim his distribution for a time when other things will not distract the prospective respondent. Both the beginning and the end of the school year are poor times to ask educators to complete and return a questionnaire.

After about two weeks, depending upon the geographic scope of the survey, returns will start coming in. Even though responses are anonymous, the questionnaire should be coded in some way to ascertain who has responded. One method is putting a code number under the stamp on the return envelope. The investigator must wait at least another week and then must initiate step seven in the survey. This is the follow-up of the non-respondents. The first follow-up can be a postcard reminding the people about the questionnaire and asking them to return it. After a suitable time, a second follow-up should be sent. This should contain another copy of the questionnaire with a covering letter stating that perhaps the individual did not receive the first form, and that a second one was being sent with a re-explanation of the purpose of the study. The recipient is again urged to complete and return the form. At no time should the researcher beg for the completed returns. He should appeal to the individual's professionalism if appropriate or to the fact that the individual will benefit by completing the questionnaire. Anything over a third reminder, of a nature similar to the first, will probably be a waste of time.

The researcher probably has as many returns as he will obtain. This should be between forty and ninety percent of the total group sampled. If there is any smaller return, the questionnaire probably was inappropriate or it was a mistake to use a survey technique in the first place. The investigator must examine the returns to see if any systematic non-respondent characteristics might bias the results of the survey. He must also remember that results can be generalized only to people like those who responded to the questionnaire.

The final step in survey research is the summarization and analysis of the returns. Here again this aspect of the study is so technical that a research consultant must be utilized. Certain things facilitate this step. The proper construction of the questionnaire originally is most helpful, so the consultant should be contacted before the questionnaire is reproduced in final form. The objective form of the questions lends itself to easy scoring. With the increased availability of data processing equipment, the investigator should prepare his questionnaire in such a way that the returns can easily be transferred to punched cards. Care should be taken that this transfer is accurate. The information obtained should be due to differing responses by individuals who filled out the questionnaire and not to errors in card punching. Finally, it should be repeated that if the whole population has been measured, the returns need merely be summarized and presented for use.

Theoretical Considerations. Perhaps the most basic assumption made in interpreting the returns obtained on a questionnaire is that they are valid; that is, the responses are the representations of respondents' behavior, attitudes, and opinions. Unfortunately, this assumption is not necessarily true. Many authors note that people respond with socially acceptable answers (Travers, 1964). Questionnaires are a little less susceptible to this than are interviews since people may be influenced by their perception of the interviewers. On both types of surveys, however, responses may not be true indications of behavior. It is

interesting to note that in one survey taken after President Kennedy was assassinated, 70 percent of the respondents said they had voted for Mr. Kennedy in an election he won by a plurality of less than two percent. The validity of people's responses can be measured with a device similar to that used in personality inventories. In these instruments, questions are included which have socially acceptable responses which are known to be untrue for a high percentage of the general population. (Do you attend church at least once a week?) If a person answers these questions in an overwhelmingly favorable manner, his responses are suspect on the whole instrument. The problem of using this approach on a short questionnaire is that they add to the length of the form and are usually so obvious that the respondent can detect them and answer them truthfully while still shading his responses on other questions. Also, these questions might alienate the potential respondent and cause him to refuse to answer the questionnaire. A thorough knowledge of the population being studied and their behavior in situations similar to that being surveyed will probably give a good indication as to the validity of the obtained responses. An overwhelming response of desire to have new school facilities in a district which continually rejects bond issues for new schools will probably be suspect.

Reliability is also important for a survey. Reliability is defined as the stability of the responses obtained. If the questionnaire is related to important issues about which the respondent is aware, his answers will probably be quite stable. If the issues covered are peripheral or not within the area of concern of the respondent, the answers will probably be quite unstable. Parents will be more stable in responses about the adequacy of the teachers in a school system than they will be about the administration. Teachers' responses about specific students should be more stable than administrators' responses. If the investigator wishes to check the reliability of his responses he might take a random sample of his respondents and ask them to re-answer the questionnaire.

The stability can be checked by comparing the responses on the two forms. This method is good only if nothing has occurred since the first administration of the questionnaire which would affect the respondent's answers. Another method is to repeat key questions and place them at different points in the questionnaire. With a short questionnaire, however, this will probably not be of any practical use.

Something should be said about scaling techniques. This, as with sampling and the analysis of results, is a highly technical aspect of a scientific methodology and should be worked out by a research consultant in answer to the investigator's needs. For the informal study, scaling should not be too difficult. The investigator will probably desire to place respondents in categories as to sex, race, age, education, etc., as well as their responses to a few attitude questions where again the respondent is simply being categorized. Technical difficulties arise when the investigator wishes to place respondents on a continuous scale relating their response to some underlying variable, when he wishes to measure the strength of their feeling on a question, or when he wishes to establish a complex structure of a respondent's answers.

Sometimes this latter problem uses the <u>semantic differential</u> technique. In this technique the respondent is told to indicate the direction and intensity of his feelings by placing a single mark (x) in one of the seven continuum positions along each line between the words. Thus:

How would you usually describe Principal Gleep of Central High School?

Bad	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	Good
Strong	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	Weak

(The numbers shown here would not appear on the questionnaire.) This approach and its analysis is technical and should not be used without direction. (For additional information on the semantic differential, see Osgood, et al., 1957.)

The problem of measuring the strength of a respondent's feeling can be done in various ways. One way is to ask him to express his opinion in a form for which a psychological scale has already been established (Backstrom and Hursh, 1963). For example:

How important is it to you that Model City include a swimming pool in the proposed high school?

		(Weight)	
1 ___	very important	(8)	(These weights do not appear on the questionnaire.)
2 ___	important	(7)	
3 ___	unimportant	(3)	
4 ___	very unimportant	(2)	

Another method is to give the respondent a stimulus and then ask him to place a mark (x) on a continuous scale in a position which represents his attitude. For example:

Definitely dissatisfied	More dissatisfied than satisfied	About half and half	More satisfied than dissatisfied	Definitely satisfied

A key can then be superimposed on the scale. The respondent's score is the scale point nearest which his response falls.

Several techniques have been established to place respondents on a continuous scale relating their response to some underlying variable. The bibliography contains several references on scaling. Most of these, however, are of such a technical nature that the investigator should rely upon his research consultant to determine the type of scale to be used and the methods for analysing the collected data. Basically these techniques begin with the assumption that there is a unidimensional scale underlying the variable in question. This means that if a respondent says that A is greater than B and B is greater than C, then of necessity A is greater than C. If this assumption does not hold, there is not an underlying unidimensional scale, and few satisfactory scaling methods have been developed to handle the situation which arises. The model for the unidimensional scale is as follows. A set of questions is developed which measure various degrees of agreement with the underlying attitude. The

respondent's position on the scale then is determined by the point at which he no longer agrees with the questions. Thus:

Items	Least Favorable Item (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	Most Favorable Item (5)	Score	Respondent's Rank
Respondent 1	A	A	A	A	A	5	1 (Most Favorable)
Respondent 2	A	A	A	A	D	4	2
Respondent 3	A	A	A	D	D	3	3
Respondent 4	A	A	D	D	D	2	4
Respondent 5	A	D	D	D	D	1	5
Respondent 6	D	D	D	D	D	0	6 (Least Favorable)

(Backstrom and Hursh, 1963)

Of course, this is the idealized case--the model--but methods have been developed to use it in practical problems.

Needless to say, the best advice is to check with a research consultant and let him develop the scale and the means of analysing the results.

Specific Considerations

The place where the investigator must really put forth the effort is in the writing of the individual questions which make up the questionnaire. This section will consider the points necessary in writing appropriate questions. As has been stated, this is quite similar to writing objective tests. Therefore, reviewing the sections of a tests and measurements book concerning test construction would aid in preparing to write the questionnaire. Perhaps the best way to cover the following points is to ask a series of questions and then give reasons and examples, where necessary, to show the importance of the points raised. This series of questions can then serve as a checklist to aid the investigator in constructing his own questionnaire.

Checklist for Questionnaire Construction[1]

Question Content (Apart from Wording)

Is this question necessary? Just how will it be useful?

Does the subject matter require a separate question or can it be integrated with other questions?

Is the point already sufficiently covered by other questions?

Is the matter covered unnecessarily detailed and specific for the purposes of the study?

Instead of asking the age of each child in the family, it is sometimes sufficient to get the number of children under sixteen. Asking the respondent the type of college attended is often more efficient than asking the name of the school which must then be looked up to determine its nature.

Are several questions needed on the subject matter of this question?

Does the question try to cover too much ground?

Is it too general?

Does it try to cover more than one point?

The response to the question, "Do Negroes get the same wage scale and opportunities for advancement as do the whites?" can be confusing to the investigator. A "yes" answer to this question can mean both parts are held by the respondent or only one of them is so held. The investigator does not know if both are, or, if only one is held by the respondent, which one is so held.

Does the question adequately cover the ground intended?

A question asked people whether they were in favor of having more educational programs on television, but this gave no indication of whether they would watch these programs.

In additional questions, is further information needed on the respondent's intensity of feeling?

In connection with questions on stereotypes, it may be important to find out not only whether the respondent has certain stereotypes but also what feeling for, if any, is attached to these stereotypes. A person may think that the members of a certain group are "clannish", but he may feel that this is reprehensible, admirable, or he may be indifferent about it.

Is further information needed on how important the respondent considers the condition or issue asked about?

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[1]This Checklist is a substantial condensation of "Constructing Questionnaires and Interview Schedules" by Arthur Kornhauser.

Do respondents have the information necessary to answer the question?

Does the question call for answers which the respondent either cannot give at all or cannot give reliably?

Attempts to measure anti-Negro feelings by inquiring how the respondent feels about his personal relations with Negroes encounter difficulties, especially in areas where respondents may have few or no personal dealings with Negroes.

Does the question need to be more concrete, specific, and closely related to the respondent's personal experience?

Is it asked in too general a form?

Can the information be better obtained by referring it more closely to the respondent's own behavior?

Does it ask about specific recent events instead of what the respondent "usually" does?

Does it utilize natural psychological aids to recall, such as having the respondent relive experiences "along the time line" and having him reinstate surrounding memories?

A study of leisure-time activities might ask the respondent to begin "at this time yesterday" and fill in, step by step, his activities for the past twenty-four hours.

Is the question content sufficiently general and free from spurious concreteness and specificity?

Is the subject matter such that the respondents are more able to supply general, overall information on the point than to give analytical answers on particular parts of the whole?

Is the question more specific than necessary for the purpose of the inquiry?

Does it lead to inaccurate or misinformed responses?

Do the replies express general attitudes and only seem to be as specific as they sound?

Ordinarily, the danger lies in questions which are too general, but on occasion the reverse is true. The highly specific question may be improperly used to tap general attitudes or to ascertain overall facts.

Is the question content biased or loaded in one direction without accompanying questions to balance the emphasis?

Is the subject matter unfair in any way?

Is it likely to obtain answers which will unduly favor one side of the issue?

Would the content be accepted as fair by informed persons with the opposite views on the point under inquiry?

Does the question introduce unwarranted assumptions about the subject matter?

Opinion poll questions often inquire into negative and vulnerable aspects of an institution or organization without accompanying questions regarding positive features. By dwelling on what is wrong with teachers unions, thinking is directed disproportionately to their disapproved features, and an unfair picture is obtained.

Will the respondents give the information that is asked for?

Is the material too private, of an embarrassing nature, or otherwise likely to lead to resistance, evasion, or deception?

What objection might a person have to answering?

Does the question make him feel he is being quizzed?

Can one get at information in a manner which would not offend, or should it be omitted?

Do any special conditions exist at the time and place of the survey to augment suspicion or resistance?

There are obvious matters which are "touchy", which people are reluctant to disclose--for example, one's own limitations and difficulties, or antisocial attitudes such as race and religious prejudices. Such topics must either be avoided in questionnaires or forms of inquiry must be employed which will elicit the desired information without unduly disturbing the respondent.

Is the question likely to encounter emotional influences and desires which lead to falsification of answers?

Is the content such that respondents are likely to assume that certain answers will please the investigators or that others will hurt their feelings?

Many people answer even factual questions in a way which tends to exaggerate such matters as their income, education, and social status, that reduces their age, or that ennobles their act and motives.

Question Wording

Can the question be misunderstood? Does it contain difficult or unclear phraseology?

Are the words simple enough for the least educated respondent?

Are any terms used in a specialized way and, if so, is the meaning made clear?

Is the sentence structure short and simple? Is there any looseness or ambiguity as to just what is referred to? What else could the question mean to a respondent?

Is the meaning clearly distinguished from other ideas the respondent may think the question asks--ideas that may seem more natural or important to him?

Such terms as College Boards, AFT, etc., are encountered in questionnaires even though they convey no clear meaning to large sections of the American public. Simple and familiar words are often employed in a vague, ambiguous manner in the questions so that answers are not comparable. Long or difficult sentences are likely to be misunderstood by many respondents.

Does the question adequately express the alternatives in respect to the point asked about?

Are the comparisons that are to be made clearly specified?

Are all important alternatives considered? Are they made explicit?

The safe rule is to make each of two alternatives explicit whenever there is a possible lack of clarity as to what the second alternative might be. Even when the implication is reasonably clear, a statement of the second alternative may serve to make it more vivid than it would otherwise be and hence to place the two possible answers on a more nearly equal footing.

Is the question misleading by reason of unstated assumptions or unseen implications? Is the frame of reference clear and uniform for all respondents?

Does the question bring out the basis for the respondent's reply--the frame of reference within which he is answering?

Does the question distinguish between what he wishes to have true and what he thinks is true?

Many questions are asked independently and in isolation which can be answered only on the assumption that certain other things are true. Without a knowledge of the assumptions of the respondent in answering, the replies are subject to grave misinterpretation.

Is the wording biased? Is it emotionally loaded or slanted toward a particular kind of answer?

Does it employ stereotypes? Does it contain prestige-carrying names? Does it employ superlative terms which push the answer one way or the other? (If such elements of bias are present, are they there intentionally, and does the research purpose justify their inclusion?)

Does the question tend to elicit replies that are more one-sided than those the respondents would give on the same point if they had the opportunity to answer freely and fully?

Would the question wording be acceptable to persons with opposite views on the matter?

The question, "About how many books do you read in an average month?" gives a strong implication that the person is expected to read one or more books a month. The respondent should have been asked whether he read any books and how often, perhaps with another question asking the names of the books read.

Is the question wording likely to be objectionable to the respondent in any way?

Will it cause embarrassment, annoyance, or other negative feelings?

Can it be made more acceptable by changes in wording?

Instead of asking the respondent directly what the amount of his income is, a question like the following makes it easier to obtain the information.

"For the purpose of our survey, we need to have a rough indication of the income of your family. Into which of these classes does it fall:

Below $3,000 a year
From $3,000 to $5,000 a year
Over $5,000 a year."

Would a more personalized or less personalized wording of the question produce better results?

The more personal form of questions probably elicits a more individual expression of feelings in contrast to a judgment more tempered by what the respondent supposes that other people think, or what he thinks the objective realities may demand. On the other hand, the impersonal form may yield more "practical" judgment and may, at times, save embarrassment and lead to more frank replies.

Can the question be better asked in a more direct or more indirect form?

Will it be more likely to elicit the desired information or attitudes if these are not asked for explicitly?

Can the information or attitudes be safely inferred from responses to an indirect form of the question?

Using the "indirect" procedure, questions are asked, for example, about how radical or conservative certain magazines or men in public life are. The respondent who calls them all conservative indirectly reveals his own "radicalism" and conversely with one who rates them as radical.

Is the form of response easy, definite, uniform, and adequate for the purpose?

Do the questions avoid the need for mathematical computation on the part of the respondent?

Are instructions to the respondent clear and easily followed in terms of the methods of response? Is it clear whether the respondent is to check only one space or more than one?

Is a place provided for each reply so that the person recording the results can distinguish "don't know" and "no answer" from overlooked questions?

Many ways of making answers easy and definite are evident. Among the most important are the use of check categories in place of asking for precise estimates and the obtaining of raw figures instead of averages, percentages, and other derived figures. Thus, it is better not to ask what percent of the income is spent for rent, but to obtain the actual figures for income and rent; to ask not the average distance of recent automobile trips but the distance of each trip.

The Place of the Question in the Sequence

Is the answer to the question likely to be influenced by the contents of preceding questions?

Do earlier questions create a certain set or expectation which might influence answers to this question?

Do preceding questions aid the recall of ideas which bear on this question? Does this question become inappropriate if certain answers were given previously?

Does it ask for information given in an earlier question?

When both general and specific questions are to be asked on a topic, it is usually necessary to have the general ones come first. Thus, if a question is to be asked of working people as to what improvements they desire in their employment relations and another question is to be asked on how they like their foreman, the first must be placed before the second; otherwise, better supervision will be disproportionately emphasized as a desired improvement simply because it has been freshly called to mind.

Is the question led up to in a natural way? Is it in correct psychological order?

Are questions properly grouped? Is the respondent's train of thought interrupted?

It is usually best to ask objective questions about situations and behavior as an approach to attitudes, preferences, and motives pertaining to those conditions.

Does the question come too early or too late from the point of view of arousing interest and receiving sufficient attention, avoiding resistance, etc.?

Is the opening question simple, definite, interesting, within the knowledge or experience of respondents, free from personal embarrassment, etc.?

Are "touchy" questions placed toward the end of the questionnaire to ensure better rapport and keep them from interfering with earlier questions?

Some suspicion may be aroused by a questionnaire for workers which opens abruptly with the question: "Where do you work? In what department?"

It is usual to place questions asking personal and identifying data about the respondent at the end of the question form. He is ordinarily more willing to tell his age, education, marital status, etc., at this time.

Afterword: Upon reading this paper, the investigator may feel discouraged and want to use some other method to study the problem in which he is interested. He should keep in mind that this is an overall structure for helping him to conduct a survey and not a set of rules to be rigidly followed in order to guarantee success. Research and investigations are methods used in attempting to establish solutions to problems, whether they are in education or the natural or social sciences. These methods consist mainly in the common sense use of tools and techniques which have been developed to provide the solutions to problems. If the investigator uses common sense and is willing to ask questions of the appropriate people at the appropriate time he can be confident that he will obtain information which will help him solve his problems.

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SUGGESTIONS FOR THE PREPARATION OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH PROPOSALS*

David R. Krathwohl, Michigan State University, 1963

Does your research proposal show off its true potential? Check each section of your proposal against the following points --

Problem Statement- In this section you explain your problem and its significance to the field of education.

1. Does your problem statement convince the reviewer of the importance of the proposal? Cite one or two concrete consequences. Indicate the way it builds on previous theory or contributes to new theory.

2. Is it so written that its problem falls within the scope of the program of the granting agency? For the USOE Cooperative Program, are its implications for human learning, preferably school learning, made evident?

3. Have you drawn a clear ring around your problem making clear what you plan to include and what leave out? Don't make your problem statement so broad you are going to solve the world's ills.

4. Does it communicate to the intelligent professional who is not a specialist in your field?

5. Is your statement so written that the hasty reader is signaled by topic paragraph sentences, underlining or other devices where to find a succinct statement of the purpose of your research?

6. Have you briefly indicated the approach you plan to use?

Related Research- Summarize the most pertinent related research, referring to the relationship between it and your study in such a way that you demonstrate your mastery of the field and that the manner in which it is a new contribution is made clear. Inclusion of the theoretical base of the study is important. It suggests a context for the research and provides a rationale.

1. This is your chance to show your scholarship. Have you carefully selected those materials which most directly bear on the problem?

2. Have you summarized them in such a way that you communicate to the intelligent non-specialist how they contribute to lay a foundation for your research? Don't expect him to read the references and don't expect him to go out and hunt them down to understand your proposal.

3. Have you critically reviewed the studies and hinted at (but not explained here in detail) how you will avoid their flaws?

4. Have you included studies that are on-going and indicated how you will mesh your study with them or how your study has a unique niche?

*A check list with special relevance for USOE Cooperative Research Program proposals, but also useful as a general check on any proposal.

5. Studies which have a theoretical base have the greatest generality of use and application. If there is a theoretical base for your study, have you described it and clearly indicated its relation to the problem? Can you show how your study tests the theory or contributes to its extension in some way?

6. You can't find literature bearing on your problem? Don't say so without indicating how you conducted your search, what you looked at, headings searched, etc. It sometimes helps to indicate the closest studies that were found, and show how they fall short if it is not self-evident. Statements to the effect that you are starting de novo and nobody has ever done anything related to your study are viewed with suspicion by reviewers. Have you indicated how you have made a scholarly attempt to find your precoursers in the field?

7. The most common error in the treatment of this section is trying to impress the readers with a lengthy bibliography that includes everything but not doing enough with each reference to show how it contributes. Remember a competent graduate student can compile a bibliography, but only a scholar can integrate and weave the references into a supporting rationale for a study.

Objectives- Here in very specific form you are asked to indicate your objectives, your hypotheses, the questions you intend to answer. The relation of this section to the problem statement must be made clear. This section often forms a basis for judging the rest of the proposal, so it is critical that the things you intend to do in the Procedure are reflected in the hypotheses to be tested and vice versa.

1. Do the hypotheses or questions clearly flow from the problem statement or have you provided material which makes this relation clear?

2. Have you flagged your objectives clearly so the reviewer can find them readily? Listing them in order of importance or potential contribution is a good idea.

3. Have you shown their relation to underlying theory, if this is not self-evident to the intelligent non-specialist? If you have not yet laid your theoretical base, be sure to do so here if there is such a base.

4. Do you have clean-cut specific, achievable objectives that lend themselves to operational definitions? (You'll discuss the operations which define the terms of your hypotheses in the section for instrumentation under Procedure.)

5. Are these statements consistent with the Procedure section? Do you claim more here than your procedures will support? Are there aspects of your procedure and your analysis that are not reflected here?

6. Are the hypotheses and questions testable? Have you separated value judgments which may have crept into your treatment of the problem from the researchable questions which your data can answer?

7. Are the hypotheses stated in a form which indicates what you expect to happen? Statements in the null form make it difficult to tie the hypotheses to the theory and background you have developed. They also give an amateurish impression to the reader.

Procedures- This tends to be one of the most carefully read parts of the proposal. Here the chips are down. In glowing terms and appealing generalities you have so far tried to persuade the reader that what you intend to do is worthwhile. Describing your procedural steps in detail brings your project down to earth in operational terms. The section consists of: (a) the general design, (b) population and sample, (c) data and instrumentation, (d) analysis, and (e) time schedule.

(a) General design- Your design indicates how you will structure your situation so that you can gather data which will most economically and efficiently use your subjects and which will permit whatever effect you want to observe to be maximally effective, sensed and measured; contaminating variables either are controlled or the experimental effect compensated for their action.

1. If you have not done so previously, have you precisely indicated which are the variables that will produce the experimental effect (independent variables), and indicated equally clearly what the experimental effect (dependent variables) will be? Delineate also the variables which might affect the dependent variable but which are considered contaminating variables. (i.e. What other variable might have produced the experimental results if we didn't control them?)

2. If the independent variables are to be manipulated in experimental fashion, have you indicated how this will be done? If different levels of treatment effect will be used, indicate these and tell (a) why these levels were chosen, and (b) how they will be monitored to be sure that the levels of treatment are obtained. (e.g. how did you decide to use reading books at particular levels of difficulty and how will you know that the readers do have that level of difficulty?)

3. Are all your hypotheses accounted for in your design plans? Are all aspects of your design plans adequately covered by the hypotheses and objectives statements?

4. Have you indicated how you expect to control those variables which might otherwise be interpreted as causing the experimental result? Indicate the means of control for each of the variables and how it fits your design (randomization, counter-balancing, masking, etc.).

5. You cannot possibly control all possible contaminating factors. Every design is a compromise. It is important that you indicate the nature of the particular compromise that you have chosen, pointing out why you chose to control the variables you did, and why you let others go. The latter is as important as the former, since this indicates that the lack of control of these variables is not an oversight, but an intentional act. Have you laid this out so the reader can judge the basis on which you made your compromise?

6. Have you avoided expediency as a reason for leaving a variable uncontrolled unless it is judged as an unimportant variable?

7. If cost is a factor in the control problem, have you prepared an option in the budget indicating what it will cost additionally to control potentially important factors?

8. Re-read your design presentation. Have you presented the most convincing case you can that the particular compromise you chose has a rational, realistic base that takes into account previous experience with flaws in design of similar research? Here are some frequent errors. (Not all apply to all designs, obviously.)

   Did you -- provide for a control group if one is needed?
   -- take into account the Hawthorne effect?
   -- look for practice effect in testing?
   -- remember to look for a possible regression effect?
   -- choose your under and over achievers correctly?
   -- look for factors resulting in biased assignments to the experimental and control group?
   -- provide for cross-validation of all multiple correlation results?
   -- look for potential selective loss of cases?
   -- look for the effect of pre-testing subjects?
   -- watch for growth or maturation effects in a long-term study?
   -- make sure that the control group is given all treatment but the experimental one?

   The above are only suggestive. This part of the check-list could be as long as a book. -- In fact, consult one if in doubt.

(b) Population and sample- Describe here the group from which you will sample, how your subjects will be drawn and the rationale for the selection method. Indicate what controls by stratification or other means you will employ in sampling. Indicate the method by which individuals will be assigned to any groups involved in the study, and the rationale for the assignment method.

1. The description of the population from which you choose your sample is an operational statement of the group to whom you expect your results to generalize. Is it consistent with your problem statement as to the generality you have lead the reviewer to expect?

2. Have you indicated the basis for stratification or other controls and the reasons therefore? Have you indicated the basis on which other factors are left uncontrolled?

3. Have you indicated at what point, if any, in the sampling process random selection enters?

4. Have you indicated the basis for the sample size which you have chosen? Be sure to indicate any pilot studies which permitted you to estimate the size of sample needed to insure a given level of precision in the study. If possible, get estimates of your parameters from other studies and use these to indicate that the precision of your study will be adequate to show the intended result.

5. Use a sample size which is consistent with the methods you intend to employ. It is frequently better to employ careful methods and to follow-up missing cases on a small sample, than to use a large sample and ignore missing data. A selective factor may be operating in determining what is missing.

6. If in doubt about sample size adequacy, err on the side of being too large rather than too small. The overhead and fixed costs on an experiment are such that it is less expensive to include cases in the original experiment than to replicate it. Indicate the basis for this decision in your description of the sampling plan.

7. Is the sampling plan consistent with the statistical model which you use in analysis of the data?

f. If you are not following a sampling plan but using a convenient sample, have you indicated how this is justified and how you expect the results to generalize?

(c) Data and instrumentation - Indicate the data to be gathered and the collection methods to be used.

1. Your measures are the operational definitions of the terms used in your hypothesis. Are they operational definitions which are generally acceptable, or is there a wide gap between the measure of the variable and what is intended by the usual connotation and denotation of the variable? (Especially important with affective measures--values, attitudes, etc.)

2. Have you indicated the appropriate psychometric indices (validity, reliability, objectivity) for the measures you are using? This is particularly important with new or little used measures. Remember you are writing for an intelligent non-specialist. Don't take it for granted that he knows the tests in your field unless they are quite common to the educational enterprise.

3. Have you included copies of new instruments (tests, questionnaires, etc.), or samples of instruments that are to be built?

4. Have you a measurement problem that even the top men have tried to solve and failed? Don't indicate that you will come up with an idea by and by. Indicate concretely how you expect to make a break-through in areas of instrument construction that have so far resisted such efforts. Pious intent is not enough.

5. Have you indicated measures of objectivity where it is important--rating scales, scoring of protocols, standardized interviews, essay tests, observations, etc.? Either indicate past evidence or provide for its collection in the study.

6. Have you attended to the social-psychological aspects of data collection? Note control of these factors where relevant--control of race and sex in testing and interviewing, etc.

7. Indicate special provision for data collection where it is likely to involve controversy of some kind because of the topic involved, questions asked, clients used, etc.

8. Indicate how self-selection will be controlled where a number of school systems must be screened to find those that will cooperate.

(d) Analysis- Indicate the methods that will be used for each hypothesis or question.

1. Analysis must be consistent with objectives, design and sampling method. Use correlational techniques where you are interested in the strength of a relation, and difference statistics to distinguish groups. A significant difference where one needs a correlation only indicates a correlation that is higher than zero.

2. In multivariate designs involving analysis of variance, indicate the correct error term.

3. Indicate how assumptions of the statistical model may be violated and what action may be taken if this is likely.

4. If special analytic tools are to be used (e.g. computers, new factorial rotations, etc.) indicate their nature and any evidence of their validity and reliability if relevant.

(e) Time schedule- Indicate in chronological order, the length of time required for each major aspect of the study.

1. This gives an indication of how carefully and realistically you have thought through your project. Anticipate problems and leave time for them.

2. Indicating the phasing of your project may help the funding agency get you started by supporting first phases even if they can't support the whole project.

3. Flow charts and diagrams are helpful in demonstrating the time relations and helping you to analyze and communicate the working procedure.

Personnel- Give name, title and brief statement of pertinent experience and unique qualifications of personnel.

1. Be sure to list research experience.

2. Do not list persons without their permission, particularly persons of prominence, unless you specifically indicate they are to be contacted.

3. A roster of personnel in readiness gives the impression of prior concern and preparation which bodes well for the project's success.

Facilities- Indicate special facilities and equipment which are available to the project.

1. Actively available consultation facilities should be listed.

2. Cooperation of schools and agencies that will be involved should be obtained to the extent possible and evidence of their consent included.

Budget- The budget is an operational statement in monetary terms. A carefully thought out project translates easily into monetary terms. Budget preparation is a good test of how carefully you have teased out the details of your procedure.

1. Remember, it is rarely true that this is your last chance at the budget. It can go both up and down under negotiation.

2. You should have rationales for all items included, since these may be called for in negotiation of contract or grant.

3. It is perfectly permissible to include funds for the salaries of the investigators. Be sure to include fringe benefits of all personnel.

4. Find persons who know the costs of relevant items and salaries, e.g. a purchasing agent, and they'll be able to ease your load. Have them check your work.

5. Find out how to compute overhead and differential overhead.

Overall points-

1. A research proposal is basically a chain of reasoning, each step building on the previous one. It must hang together and be internally consistent. It should flow from the problem statement to the objectives. Your sampling and experimental procedure should match your objectives. Your analysis method should match your sampling plan and procedure, etc...Make sure that ends are not dropped, objectives slighted, data collected but no analysis plan, etc.

2. You should be cognizant of the process by which your proposal will be judged. Have you spent extra time on the parts that will be most critical in the judging process? Have you skipped the items that may be important?

3. Have you supplied extra information regarding procedures, instruments, etc. in the appendix, out of the way of the write-up, but available?

4. Even the best proposal writer benefits from others' critiques of his write-up. Has anyone read yours for you?

5. Try putting the proposal aside and then coming back to it afresh and looking at it in perspective.

6. Make sure your proposal falls within the scope of the program of the funding agency. Many so-called research problems are really attempts to use an already tested idea in a new contest. Such action-oriented proposals might better be directed to a demonstration program, or a development program. Are you applying to the right funding agency, and the right program within the agency?

7. Proposal writing is a fine balance. On one hand you need to lay out a study in sufficient detail that the reviewer is convinced that you have a problem worth investigating and that you have the ability to handle it. On the other hand you need not give so much detail that you lay out every single possibility and eliminate any flexibility from your plan. Half the candy of a research project is in exploring an area. A researcher worth his salt will want his fun. Any proposal that is not built around a trivial problem cannot be anticipated in all details, and reviewers know this. Try to find the balance line.

Best wishes for some significant research!

proposals evidencing a large local share of funding will be given more favorable attention.

Generally, proposals are evaluated and recommended for approval according to these criteria:

1. Educational significance.
2. Soundness of design, procedure, or operational plan.
3. Adequacy of personnel and facilities.
4. Economic efficiency.
5. Other specific criteria, as appropriate.

Evaluation of a proposal's significance to education requires more than consideration of the project itself. It involves attention to the breadth of the project's probable impact, its relationship to other ongoing and completed research, and its capacity for contributing to educational improvement within the context of total research needs.

Educational significance, then, is the first of several conditions for support; but if a proposal lacks adequate technical quality, personnel, or economic efficiency, it will not be supported, regardless of its significance. In like manner, no matter how technically excellent the proposal may be, its support is contingent on its significance to education nationally.

Funds are not available to support all the good proposals submitted to the Regional Research Program; the current approval rate is about one in five. In any case, selection of any given activity for support is based on systematic evaluation of the plan set forth in the formal proposal document and determination of whether it meets the needs of education.

The Proposal Document

The proposal document is a communication instrument which will be evaluated by the Office of Education staff and field readers selected for their research and other experience and general knowledge of the field. It will be the only contact the reviewers will have with the initiator and his ideas. The proposal must stand on its own merits; if it does not convey the message, staff and field readers will not assume meaning or intent. Many potentially good research proposals fall short of approval because they are not clearly written. Comments from individuals who are not close to the problem are valuable to the initiator in making certain that the proposal communicates.

The following suggestions may be useful to the potential investigator in developing the research proposal:

1. Tie the relevant literature to the proposed objectives. The literature review does not have to be exhaustive, but should contain the most pertinent related studies and show an awareness of promising current practices.

2. Do not attempt to attack a problem in a global fashion. Do not present so many research questions that the study would be unwieldy or could not be completed within the time or funds requested.

3. Use direct language, presenting the proposal in a straightforward manner and making sure that the ideas are clearly delineated. Avoid the use of educational jargon.

4. Outline the proposed research procedures carefully.

   (a) If the project involves the application of an experimental treatment of students, describe the characteristics of the sample, how members will be selected, the experiences to which they will be exposed, and how the evaluation will be used to determine the effectiveness of the experimental treatment(s).

   (b) If the activity takes some other approach, be sure the description of activities and the statement of expected outcomes are clear.

5. Be sure that the proposed research has an integrity in and by itself. Although a Small Project may frequently be viewed as a pilot study or suggest further research in the same area, the initial contract must be regarded as a terminal activity, must have a specified point of departure and a definable end point, and must stand alone as valid research.

Small Project Research proposals should be sent to appropriate Regional Offices. Application may be made by submitting 20 copies of a proposal which describes the activity or activities, explains their significance, identifies key personnel, and estimates the cost. All proposals must include the standard cover page, a one-page abstract, the body section, and personnel and budget items. Within this framework, each applicant states the case for his activity. Above all adapt the format to the activity, not the other way around. The format suggested below is a guide, not a prescription.

Recommended Format

The Cover Page should contain only the information shown in the sample in the order indicated. (See Appendix B, Title Page.) Two copies must be signed. Nothing may precede this page.

The Abstract occupies a single page, identifies the proposal, and summarizes the contents concisely and simply. To accommodate the various uses made of this page, the abstract must be written in language understandable by an informed layman. If the proposal is approved and supported, the abstract will appear in the monthly journal issued by the Office of Education, Bureau of Research, Research in Education. It is extremely important, therefore, that the abstract give a clear, succinct summary of the research effort.

One abstract is placed after the title page in each copy of the formal proposal and five copies are provided separately. At the top of the abstract page, the following items should appear on separate lines: Title of Project, Principal Investigator, Contracting Agency, Amount of Federal Funds Requested, and Proposed Beginning and Ending dates. The summary portion of the abstract has three parts: A statement of the purposes, objectives, or nature of the project; an indication of its expected contribution to education, and a compendium of the procedures or a description of what is to be done.

The Body of the proposal communicates the project director's plan and its probable effectiveness. It should be clear, concise, forthright, and complete, and should be kept within 10 single-spaced, typewritten pages.

Within the body section, there are ordinarily three parts which should be subtitled as appropriate for the particular kind of research or development activity to be undertaken.

Problem and objectives.--The first part tells why the research or related activity should be undertaken. It includes a statement of the problem or purposes, review of literature and related research, concise statement of objectives, or any other information necessary to establish a sound rationale.

Description of activities (Procedures).--This part tells what is to be done, when, and how. It is the basis for determining the degree to which the proposed activity can be expected to accomplish the objectives or satisfy the need set forth in the first part of the proposal body. It delineates procedures, outlines program arrangements, describes materials to be produced, or otherwise explains how the activity leads to results and how evaluation will be accomplished. Allowances for alternatives, if any, should be noted. A time schedule for completion of the project is usually provided near the end of the proposal.

The amount and kind of detailed information will vary according to the type of activity. For example, a basic research study which might include rather strict statistical

treatment would be approached quite differently from a curriculum-development activity. Preparation of initial materials for a modern foreign language would not include the same procedures as the demonstration of new media usage or the testing of a pilot study in vocational or technical education.

The Use to be made of findings.–This part tells how the results of the activity may be disseminated and/or implemented, what contribution to education can be expected, and what steps should follow.

Personnel and facilities.–Personnel and facilities are a major determinant of capability.

Personnel with major responsibilities are listed by name, position, title, experience, responsibilities within the project, percentage of time committed to the activity, and the extent to which this commitment has been assured. Consultants who have agreed to serve should be similarly identified (otherwise, the application should describe the type of consultative assistance required).

Facilities should be described and the extent to which their use has been assured should be indicated.

The Budget Section of the proposal starts on a new page and uses the tabular presentation shown (See Appendix C, Budget Worksheet: Guide for Research Activities.) The applicant should show reasonable estimates but be detailed enough to show careful analysis of expected costs and understanding of fiscal responsibilities in connection with conducting the proposed activity. Alternative budgets may show allowances for extension of objectives or revision of procedures. Local contribution, or cost sharing, is required on all grants. While not necessarily a measure of the project's soundness or potential worth, local contribution is considered evidence of local interest and commitment in the activity. The budget section should include an outline of the sources and amounts of non-Federal support and any conditions upon which this support is contingent.

Appended Items

Other information.–Provide a brief statement about each of the following: (a) If this or a similar proposal has been submitted elsewhere, give details. (b) If this is a proposed extension of, or addition to, a previous or current project supported by the Office of Education, give the Bureau and the grant or contract number of the related support instrument.

Revisions.–If this proposal is a resubmission of a previous formal proposal, give the Bureau proposal number assigned the original proposal and describe the major revisions which have been made. (This does not apply to preliminary statements submitted for informal review.)

Report of other projects.–If any of the principal personnel have a current or uncompleted project with the Office of Education or other agency, an appended statement should indicate the status of the project, the amount of time devoted to it, and the relationships between the current and proposed projects. If any of the personnel have completed a research or development project supported by the Office of Education, give information to identify it. If findings of the previous project are related to the current proposal, summarize them briefly.

Agreement with cooperating agencies.–Where agreements with school districts or other cooperating agencies are a factor, copies should be appended.

Instruments.–When an applicant plans to use a published or unpublished instrument (e.g., a questionnaire or interview guide) in his study, the proposal document should include a copy or, if the instrument is still to be developed, a page of sample items and an outline of the complete instrument. (See Data-Collection Instruments under Special Conditions applicable to Supported Activities, page 1.)

Appendix C.--Budget Worksheet: Guide for Research Activities

Initiator _____ Duration of proposed activity _____
Institution or agency _____ Beginning date: _____ Ending date: _____

Category		Project cost by line item	
		Federal	Local
I. DIRECT COSTS A. Personnel (List all position titles such as project director, research assistant, secretary, consultants,* etc. State percent of time on the project, per annum salary, and beginning and ending dates of employment for each person.)			
B. Employee benefits (Summarize benefits such as Social Security, retirement, etc.)			
C. Travel (Indicate fares and/or mileage at allowable rate; number of days per diem and rate)			
D. Supplies and materials	1. Project Materials 2. Office Supplies		
E. Communications			
F. Services	1. Duplicating and Reproduction 2. Statistical (Itemize Costs) 3. Testing (Itemize Costs) 4. Other		
G. Final report costs			
H. Equipment (Generally, capital equipment may not be purchased with research funds. Certain types of equipment may be available from Government sources as determined by the Office. If not, cost of rent vs. purchase will be considered.)			
I. Other direct costs (List)			
J. Subtotal, direct costs (List)			
II. INDIRECT COSTS (Give basis on which local overhead is computed, who established the rate, when, and period covered.)			
III. TOTAL COSTS			
IV. COST SHARING (Percentage distribution of proposed Federal and local support)			

*Consultants: Show rate and number of days under Personnel, transportation and per diem under Travel.

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A Counselor's Guide to Federal Aid Programs

The Federal Government offers a wide variety of occupational and educational assistance to help people—particularly youths—prepare for, begin, or continue their participation in the work force. Assistance ranges from basic education and job information to vocational training and work experience. Here is a capsule view of selected recent legislation showing some programs that are available, who qualifies for them, and where to get additional information.

PROGRAM	FOR WHOM	PROVISIONS	SOURCES OF ADDITIONAL INFORMATION
Youth Opportunity Centers (established within the U.S. Employment Service System).	Youths, ages 16 through 21.....	Provides a focal point for efforts to aid youth. Supporting technical and developmental services provided on three major fronts: (1) preparation for employment, (2) development of job opportunities, and (3) placement in a suitable job.	Local Youth Opportunity Center Local Employment Service Office Youth Opportunity Centers, Bureau of Employment Security, U.S. Employment Service, Washington, D.C., 20212. Request Fact Sheets about Youth Opportunity Centers.
Higher Education Act of 1965.....	Undergraduate college students and graduate students training for teaching.	Provides for scholarships of up to $800 based on need; up to $1,000 based on need and academic standing in high school. Interest free loans provided while in school, with low interest provisions following graduation. Work-study programs expanded to include needy students. Graduate fellowships provided for students preparing for elementary-secondary teaching careers.	Public Inquiry Branch, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20201.
Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965:			Local Superintendent of Schools. State Director of Guidance Service. Bureau of Educational Assistance Programs, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 20202. Request reprint, *The First Work of Those Times.*
Grants to Local Public School Districts to Broaden and Strengthen Elementary and Secondary School Programs—Title I.	Educationally deprived children living in school districts having high concentration of low-income families.	Grants for educational projects as determined by local educational agencies.	
School Library Resources, Textbooks, and other Instructional Materials—Title II.	Elementary and secondary schools.	Financial assistance makes library resources, textbooks, and other published materials available.	
Supplemental Educational Centers and Services—Title III.	Elementary and secondary schools.	Grants for supplementary enrichment programs in guidance, remedial instruction, school health, psychological and social work services, and special programs when schools are not in session. Model or exemplary demonstration projects may be established.	
Economic Opportunity Act of 1964:			
Job Corps-Youth Programs—Title I, Pt. A.	Out of school and unemployed youths, ages 16 through 21, lacking education and skills for jobs.	Establishes residential centers providing a coordinated program of basic education, skill training, and constructive work experience.	State Director of Guidance Services Job Corps, Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C., 20506. Request booklet, *Job Corps Facts.*
Work-Training Programs (Neighborhood Youth Corps)—Title I, Pt. B.	Youths, ages 16 through 21, in need of work to enable them to stay in or return to school, or increase their employability.	Financial and other assistance to provide full- or part-time work experience and training. Program can be carried out by agency of State or local government or nonprofit organization. Enrollees are placed in newly created jobs in hospitals, settlement houses, schools, libraries, courts, parks, playgrounds, etc.	Local Director of Neighborhood Youth Corps. State Director of Guidance Services Neighborhood Youth Corps, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C., 20213. Request booklet, *Earn, Learn and Serve.*
Work-Study Programs (Administered by the Office of Education as of October 1965)—Title I, Pt. C.	College students from low income families. (See also Higher Education Act of 1965.)	Grants to increase opportunity for part-time employment. On-campus jobs include dormitory and plant maintenance, food service, clerical work, library indexing, and laboratory assistance. Off-campus employment, conducted under agreement with public or private nonprofit organizations, includes work as tutors, youth workers, recreation leaders, and community service aids.	College where student has been accepted. Division of Student Financial Aid, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 20202. Request information sheet about Work-Study Programs.

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PROGRAM	FOR WHOM	PROVISIONS	SOURCES OF ADDITIONAL INFORMATION
Urban and Rural Community Action Programs—General Community Action Programs—Title II, Pt. A.	Needy persons, including migrant farm workers, Indians, and preschool children.	Up to 90 percent financial support for local antipoverty campaigns. Projects include literacy instruction, job development, vocational rehabilitation, and health, social, and legal services. Preschool child development centers (called "Project Head Start") seek to improve the physical condition of the poor, develop their self-confidence and ability to relate to others, increase their verbal and conceptual skills, and involve parents in educational activities with their children.	Local Director of Community Action Programs. Community Action, Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C., 20506. Request booklet, *War on Poverty—A Hometown Fight*, and Project Head Start Fact Sheet.
Adult Basic Education Programs—Title II, Pt. B.	Adults 18 years of age and over whose inability to read and write makes it difficult for them to get or keep a job.	Offers assistance in programs to eliminate illiteracy and raise the level of education, thus improving participants' ability to hold jobs and benefit from occupational training projects. The program is coordinated with Community Action and Work-Experience programs and other antipoverty efforts.	Local Director of Community Action Programs. Director, Adult Education Branch, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 20202. Request Fact Sheet about Title II, Part B, of the Economic Opportunity Act.
Rural Loans—Title III, Pt. A....	Low-income rural families and cooperatives in need of small loans to improve their earnings but unable to obtain credit from other sources.	Loans of up to $7,500 to individuals, currently at 4¼ percent interest on the unpaid principal. Maximum repayment period for loans to individuals is 15 years; to cooperatives, 30 years. Technical aid and counseling also provided.	Farmers Home Administration County Supervisor serving your area. Director of Information, Farmers Home Administration, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C., 20250. Request publications PA 662 and PA 663.
Small Business Loans—Title IV.	Prospective and existing businesses which lack the collateral needed to qualify for conventional financing.	Loans of up to $25,000, repayable in 15 years, usually at 5½ percent, to businesses in communities establishing Small Business Development Centers. Management counseling and training provided.	Nearest Small Business Administration Field Office. Small Business Administration, Washington, D.C., 20416. Request publication OPI-22.
Work-Experience Programs—Title V.	Needy adults, particularly unemployed parents with dependent children.	Up to 100 percent Federal financing for work experience and job training projects. Basic literacy instruction and social services also provided.	Office of Special Services, Bureau of Family Services, Welfare Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 20201. Request Fact Sheet about Work-Experience Programs.
Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA)—Title VI, Pt. A, Sec. 603.	Persons ages 18 and over.....	Provides an opportunity for service in the War on Poverty. Volunteers work with migrant laborers, on Indian reservations, in urban and rural community action programs, in slum areas, hospitals, schools, and in institutions for the mentally ill and retarded. A living allowance of $50 a month is provided, and the period of service is 1 year.	VISTA Volunteer, Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C., 20506. Request booklet, *An Invitation To Serve.*
Nurse Training Act of 1964:			
Nursing Student Loan Program.	Persons enrolled or accepted for enrollment as full-time students in an accredited school of nursing having a loan fund under the Act.	Establishes a student loan fund from which nursing students may borrow up to $1,000 an academic year, on reasonable terms. The act also provides for funds to establish traineeships for the training of professional nurses.	Institution where student is enrolled or has been accepted. Bureau of State Services (Community Health), U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 20201. Request publication 1164.
Vocational Education Act of 1963:			
Local School Program of Vocational Education—Sec. 4a.	Persons who wish to learn, upgrade, or continue learning a skill.	Vocational education in secondary and postsecondary schools, colleges, and nonprofit agencies. Training for any occupation except the professions.	Local Director of Vocational Education. State Director of Guidance Services. State Director of Vocational Education. Publications Distribution Unit, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 20202. Request publication O.E.-30004.
Work-Study Program—Sec. 13...	Vocational education students ages 15 through 20.	Up to 15 hours a week of employment for full-time students in vocational education who are in need of money to commence or continue their program. Salary may not exceed $350 per year for noncommuters, $600 for commuters.	

PROGRAM	FOR WHOM	PROVISIONS	SOURCES OF ADDITIONAL INFORMATION
The Health Professions Educational Assistance Act of 1963 as amended in 1965:			
The Health Professions Student Loan Program—Pt. A.	Those enrolled or accepted as full-time students in a school which has a loan fund under the Act.	Establishes student loan funds, for students pursuing a degree in medicine, dentistry, optometry, or osteopathy, from which needy students may obtain loans of up to $2,500 a year. Part F, Sec. 780 of the Act provides for grants to schools of medicine, dentistry, osteopathy, optometry, podiatry, and pharmacy for scholarships of up to $2,500 a year to needy students.	Institution where student is enrolled or has been accepted. Bureau of State Services (Community Health), U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 20201. Request publication 1947.
Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Health Center Construction Act of 1963.			
Project Grants—Title I, Part B.	Physicians and other specialized personnel needed for research, diagnosis and treatment, education, training, or care of the mentally retarded.	Grants to schools for traineeships.	Public Inquiry Branch, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20201
Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended—Title II.	Unemployed or under-employed persons 16 years of age and older who cannot reasonably be expected to secure appropriate full-time employment without training.	Testing, counseling, and occupational training. Subsistence allowance provided during training, if enrollee is at least 17, is a high school graduate, and has been out of school for 1 year.	Local Director of Vocational Education. State Director of Vocational Education. Local Director of State Employment Service. State Director of Guidance Services. Publications Distribution Unit, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 20202. Request publication OE-10081-A.
Area Redevelopment Act, 1961:			
Area Redevelopment Program—Sec. 16. (In April 1965, this program, effective July 1, 1963, became Pt. C of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962.)	Unemployed or under-employed persons living in a "redevelopment area" as designated by the Secretary of Commerce on the basis of a sustained high rate of unemployment.	Occupational training. Subsistence allowance provided during training in accordance with provisions of the Manpower Development and Training Act cited above.	Local Director of Vocational Education. Local Manager of the U.S. Employment Office. State Director of Vocational Education. State Director of Guidance Services. Publications Distribution Unit, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 20202. Request publication OE-10081-A.
National Defense Education Act of 1958, as amended in 1963:			
Student Loans for Higher Education—Title II.	College students.....	Establishment of a loan fund at institutions of higher education, for needy students. Loans may not exceed $1,000 per year or $5,000 for all years to any student.	College where student is enrolled or has been accepted. Division of Student Financial Aid, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 20202. Request publication OE-43035-66.
Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1954, as amended in 1965:			
Vocational Rehabilitation Program	Disabled persons capable of earning a living if given occupational training.	Rehabilitation services including medical help to reestablish or improve work skills; physical aids such as braces, trusses, artificial limbs, and hearing devices; vocational guidance and training; board and room and travel allowance during rehabilitation; help in finding a job; tools and licenses; and help on the job. The Act also provides for up to 4 years of graduate level training to students specializing in rehabilitation counseling.	State Director of Vocational Rehabilitation. State Guidance Director. Vocational Rehabilitation Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 20201. Request booklet, *For the Disabled—Help Through Vocational Rehabilitation.*

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Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

SARGO #12

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

Preparation of an Evaluation Plan for Yor Program and the Development of Instruments Needed.

Introduction:

In SARGO #11, a research prospectus was prepared. The sound procedures learned in preparation of that prospectus should be applied in developing your evaluation plan and techniques. The objectives in SARGO #2, if soundly and specifically ennumerated should provide the basis for launching the evaluation study.

There are two principal ways of evaluating counseling or personnel programs; to study the process, or to study the outcome. Process conditions are an important part of evaluation, but not to the extent demonstrated by the overbalance of evaluation studies focussing on this means. Outcome evaluation, as it relates to specified processes, is sorely needed in most schools, colleges, or clinics. Evaluation should be an integral part of your program on a systematic and longitudinal basis.

The time has come to assess the program you have been developing this year. It will be necessary to describe your procedures so clearly that another person could conduct the evaluation from your description and with your instruments. Good questionnaires are difficult to prepare, therefore, it is recommended that you refer to samples from your state department or in professional literature.

Objectives:

1. To be able to outline an evaluation program that demonstrates research and evaluation skills.

2. To develop a questionnaire that will adequately evaluate a guidance program in terms of outcome.

3. To be able to apply critcal judgment in the assessment of a questionnaire developed by another person.

4. To relate program objectives in terms of how they may be applied to dealing with a specific student.

TED #1 - Typical Encounter of the Day:

Referring to your program objectives established in SARGO #2, and to the survey techniques you learned in SARGO #11, develop a two-part questionnaire that will indicate just how well your program achieved its objectives. The first part will be responded to by students; the second part, by teachers. In this way you will ascertain how your program is seen and valued by those for whom it was primarily developed, the students, and by those who have the most frequent contact with the students, the teachers.

TED #2

Recommended format for Evaluation Program.

1. Statement of purpose of evaluation.

2. List of objectives from SARGO #2. Enumerate under each, if necessary, in hyothesis form the specific question which can be answered through your evaluation procedures.

3. Identify what guidance procedures, techniques, and practices were utilized to achieve objectives so that they can at least be connected theoretically to the objectives.

4. Describe techniques developed for data collection. Include copy of follow-up questionnaire, or other instrument that might be used. Will your data be accurate? Will verification be necessary? Will evaluation procedures be continuous?

5. What implications and conclusions might be drawn after rigorous analysis of your data? How will the results be disseminated and used by you, your staff, school, college, or clinic?

TPE #1 - Typical Personal Encounter of the Day.

You and your staff members have each prepared a proposed questionnaire. You will assemble the staff and conduct

a critique of each questionnaire in order to develop a final version that will utilize best features of all.

TPE #2

Individual objectives for each student are often a more meaningful way of approaching evaluation that the more normative approach of looking at the total program. The fact that a majority of students were helped by the guidance staff does not always give a complete picture of what happens to individuals. Review of the Case of Barbara, attached, should prepare you to respond to the following questions about the school counselor's objectives for Barbara. Responses will be oral.

1. For this particular case, what would you expect might be accomplished in terms of reasonable outcomes as a result of a series of contacts with a counselor and with other appropriate resources? (Assume that by most criteria the counselor would be rated effective).

2. What would you expect as reasonable outcomes if there were no counseling or if the counseling were of "poor" quality?

3. What kinds of information would have made it easier to make the judgments requested in items #1 and 2?

4. What might you expect as super-outcomes (exceeding reasonable expectations) as a result of a series of contacts with a counselor and with other appropriate resources? (Again, assume counselor effectiveness).

TPE #3

The superintendant of schools has been approached by a faculty member from a nearby university to administer a questionnaire to all college-oriented graduates. He asks you for your evaluation of the Questionnaire on College Admission Assistance, and for your recommendations to be presented to him via the telephone.

Suggested bibliography:

Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, Research Guidelines for High School Counselors, New York, College Entrance Examination Board, 1967, pp 71-87, 100-114.

Crew, Lester D., and Alice Crew, Organization and Conduct of Guidance Services, 1965, New York, David McKay, Chapters 15, 16 (Lists numerous check lists, inventories, and questionnaires).

Hatch, Raymond N., and Buford, Stefflre, Administration of Guidance Services, 2nd ed., 1965, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Chapter 8.

Johnson, Dorothy K., Expanding and Modifying Guidance Programs, Guidance Memograph Series I, 1968, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, pp 23-27.

Peters, Herman J., and Bruce Shertzer, Guidance: Program Development and Management, 2nd ed., 1969, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, Chapter 17.

Rothney, John W. M., Guidance Practices and Results, 1958, New York, Harper and Row.

School of Education
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, Massachusetts

QUESTIONNAIRE ON COLLEGE ADMISSION ASSISTANCE

Directions for completing questionnaire:

In completing this questionnaire, we are asking you to make your responses on the questionnaire itself and on the separate answer sheet. In making your responses, you must use a soft lead pencil (No. 2 or softer). Please do not use ink, ball point pen, or colored pencil.

First, print the name and address of your high school on the spaces provided on the questionnaire. Beginning with Item #1 and proceeding through Item #25, put a check mark in the brackets (✓) of the answer which you select. Then go to the answer sheet, find the item number on which you are working, and blacken the appropriate response position after that number.

For example, if your answer to Item #1 (What year did you graduate from high school?) is response #2 (1968), you would then make a check mark in the brackets after response #2 on the questionnaire.

1. What year did you graduate from high school?

0. 1970 ( )	4. 1966 ( )
1. 1969 ( )	5. 1965 ( )
2. 1968 (✓)	6. 1964 ( )
3. 1967 ( )	7. Before 1964 ( )

Then go to the answer sheet and blacken the position numbered "2" following question #1.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.			■							

Do this for all questions. On Item #26 you are to respond only on the questionnaire. No marks are to be made on the answer sheet for this last question.

Please use care in marking the answer sheet. Make no stray marks. Erase carefully any answers you wish to change. Make your final responses heavy and black. Upon completion, place your answer sheet inside the questionnaire and return to the supervisor. Your personal views will be held confidential.

Summary

1) Answer all questions on questionnaire form.
2) Transfer answers for questions 1-25 to answer sheet.
3) Check that only one response is blackened for items 1-25 on the answer sheet.

Thank you for your cooperation.

School of Education
University of Massachusetts

QUESTIONNAIRE ON COLLEGE ADMISSION ASSISTANCE

From what high school did you graduate?_____

What is the high school's address?_____

1. What year did you graduate from high school?

0. 1970 ( )
1. 1969 ( )
2. 1968 ( )
3. 1967 ( )
4. 1966 ( )
5. 1965 ( )
6. 1964 ( )
7. Before 1964 ( )

2. What is your sex?

0. Male ( )
1. Female ( )

3. When did you first definitely decide to attend college?

0. Before 7th grade ( )
1. During 7th grade ( )
2. During 8th grade ( )
3. During 9th grade ( )
4. During 10th grade ( )
5. During 11th grade ( )
6. During 12th grade ( )
7. After high school ( )

4. When did you first seriously consider attending the University of Massachusetts?

0. Before 7th grade ( )
1. During 7th grade ( )
2. During 8th grade ( )
3. During 9th grade ( )
4. During 10th grade ( )
5. During 11th grade ( )
6. During 12th grade ( )
7. After high school ( )

5. Whose assistance was <u>most valuable</u> to you in making your decision to attend a specific college?

0. College representative ( )
1. Counselor ( )
2. Friend ( )
3. Parent ( )
4. Principal ( )
5. Relative ( )
6. Teacher ( )
7. Other _____ ( )

6. Whose assistance was <u>next most valuable</u> to you in making your decision to attend a specific college?

0. College representative ( )
1. Counselor ( )
2. Friend ( )
3. Parent ( )
4. Principal ( )
5. Relative ( )
6. Teacher ( )
7. Other _____ ( )
8. No second choice ( )

7. Who gave you the <u>most specific</u> information about college?

0. College representative ( )
1. Counselor ( )
2. Friend ( )
4. Principal ( )
5. Relative ( )
6. Teacher ( )

8. Who gave you the next most specific information about college?

0. College representative ( )
1. Counselor ( )
2. Friend ( )
3. Parent ( )
4. Principal ( )
5. Relative ( )
6. Teacher ( )
7. Other_____ ( )
8. No second choice ( )

9. Was there at least one person in your high school who was designated as a guidance counselor?

0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )

(If your answer to question #9 is No, please skip to question #26.)

10. Did you ever talk individually with your high school counselor about attending college?

0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )

11 - 17. How did your high school counselor influence your decision to attend college?

11. Demonstrated the benefits of attending college.
0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )
12. Discouraged you about attending college.
0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )
13. Encouraged you to attend college.
0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )
14. Had no influence on your decision.
0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )
15. Provided information about admission requirements.
0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )
16. Provided information about financial assistance.
0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )
17. Other_____
0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )

18. Would you have gone to college evan if your high school counselor had never discussed college with you?

0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )

19. How helpful was your high school counselor in the process of planning for and applying to college?

0. Extremely helpful ( )
1. Quite helpful ( )
2. Of some help ( )
3. Not helpful ( )
4. Detrimental ( )

20. Did your high school counselor write your official college recommendation?

0. Yes ( )
1. No ( )
2. Don't know ( )

21. If your high school counselor did write the school's recommendation for your college admission, did you feel free to discuss your problems with him (or her)?

0. Yes ( ) 1. No ( )

22. In which of the following ways was your high school counselor <u>most helpful</u> to you?

0. Academic problems ( ) 3. Personal problems ( )
1. Educational planning ( ) 4. Vocational choice ( )
2. Job placement ( ) 5. Other_____ ( )

23. In which of the following ways was your high school counselor <u>next most</u> helpful to you?

0. Academic problems ( ) 3. Personal problems ( )
1. Educational planning ( ) 4. Vocational choice ( )
2. Job placement ( ) 5. Other_____ ( )

24. In which of the following ways would you <u>most have liked</u> your high school counselor to have been more helpful to you?

0. Academic problems ( ) 3. Personal problems ( )
1. Educational planning ( ) 4. Vocational choice ( )
2. Job placement ( ) 5. Other_____ ( )

25. In which of the following ways would you <u>next most have liked</u> your high school counselor to have been more helpful to you?

0. Academic problems ( ) 3. Personal problems ( )
1. Educational planning ( ) 4. Vocational choice ( )
2. Job placement ( ) 5. Other_____ ( )

26. What changes, if any, would you like to see made in your high school's guidance program? (Answer this question only on this sheet and <u>not</u> on the answer sheet.)

THE CASE OF BARBARA*

Barbara was an eighteen year old school dropout who was referred to the Youth Opportunity Counseling Service for vocational counseling. She was a slender and reasonably attractive girl, but excessive makeup applied in poor taste detracted from her appearance. "I don't know what I'm doing here . . . but I was told I should come here."

Barbara's formative years were characterized by emptiness and neglect. She was the oldest of four children of American born parents of German descent. Neither parent attended school beyond the eighth grade. Her father desserted the family when Barbara was fourteen and his whereabouts are unknown. Prior to his departure he was idle more frequently than he was employed and was prone to drunkeness and abusiveness. Barbara's mother did not work outside the home and the family had received welfare support since the dessertion of the father.

During the middle of the tenth grade, at age seventeen Barbara terminated her schooling because of, as she reported, "a lack of interest in school." Her educational history up to high school was rather indistinguishable, except for her being required to repeat the second grade. A host of childhood diseases came upon her during that one year and resulted in her falling considerably behind in her school work. The records indicated that she was retained for reasons of "poor achievement and adjustment."

From the time that she entered the seventh grade to the point of her termination, Barbara became increasingly difficult to find in school. When she was in attendance her disciplinary record was clear, except for occasions when she was sent to the principal for reprimands and in some cases encouragement to do her homework and put forth an effort in class.

While in high school she was enrolled in the business curriculum and

* Edward C. Roeber, John C. Jessoll, Indiana State University, Terre Haute, In

completed courses in typing, bookkeeping, history and English. Grades indicate that her performance in all of these areas was at a low level. Among these subjects she reported having liked bookkeeping and typing best and history and English least.

SUBJECT	GRADES 7	8	9	10
ENGLISH	C D	D C	D D	D INC
WORLD GEOGRAPHY	C C			
HISTORY		D D		
CIVICS			D D	
ARITHMETIC	C C			
GENERAL MATH		D D		
BUSINESS MATH				C INC
GENERAL SCIENCE	B C		B C	
TYPING			C D	
BOOKKEEPING			C C	
SHORTHAND				D INC
HOME EC. PHYS. ED.	C C	D F C C	C C	C INC

That Barbara might have performed at level in school is suggested by her performance on tests.

TESTS	PERCENTILE		
	GR 8	GR 9	GR 10
HENMON-NELSON TEST OF MENTAL ABILITY			67
PRIMARY MENTAL ABILITIES			
VERBAL	58		
SPACE	70		
REASONING	88		
NUMBER	62		
WORD FLUENCY	65		
IOWA TEST OF BASIC SKILLS			
VOCABULARY		61	
LANGUAGE		37	
ARITHMETIC		51	
WORK STUDY		48	

The consensus among her teachers was that she could have been a better student if she tried and they frequently attempted to have her realize this.

The following are excerpts from anecdotes and comments about Barbara by her teachers:

"Barbara just doesn't seem to care about anything. She has potential that she can exhibit periodically when she does good work -- but it is short lived. She rarely completes assignments." (Comments by 9th grade English teacher.)

"Prodding is the only means to get her to work. She never completes anything she starts. She can be brazen when she so chooses. She often smerks and uses profanity in low tones. She is going to have a tough time getting along in life." (Comments by 10th grade history teacher.)

"I think Barbara is troubled. She is lethargic and daydreams a great deal. She is very negative about many things. She doesn't get along well with other students." (Comments by bookkeeping teacher.)

Barbara did not participate in any of the school's extra curricular activities. "I didn't like most of those kids and they didn't like me -- so, who needs them." Her out of school activities were limited to listening to the radio and records and "hanging around with the gang." Her affiliation with the gang which was made up of members of both sexes resulted in an encounter with the law. She came to the attention of juvenille authorities for drinking alcohol which the gang had allegedly stolen. It could not be demonstrated that she was involved in the theft, but she was charged with drinking under age and placed on probation for a two year period.

Health records reveal no physical handicaps and her physical condition may be described as good.

Shortly after leaving school Barbara obtained her first and only job as a waitress and dishwasher at a lunch counter of a small department store. After two weeks she left voluntarily, although it was highly probable that she would have been dismissed for what was described by her employer as "a total lack of enthusiasm and disinterest in the work." Barbara's comments about the job were: "I liked nothing about the job. I disliked everything about it."

The General Aptitude Test Battery administered at the Youth Opportunity

Center yielded the following results:

		Score
General Intelligence	(G)	111
Verbal	(V)	102
Numerical	(N)	115
Space	(S)	110
Perceptual	(P)	138
Clerical	(C)	120
Coordination	(K)	132
Finger Dexterity	(F)	122
Manual Dexterity	(M)	140

Barbara's performance on all subtests were at least within the average range and well above average for the perceptual, coordination and manual dexterity subtests compared with others who have taken this measure.

On the (U.S.E.S.) Interest Check List, Barbara's responses were most frequent to items involving mechanical, business and scientific activities. Areas checked with least frequency included personal, social, natural, and the arts.

On the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule her scores were "above average" on the autonomy, intraception and succorance scales; within the "average range" on the exhibition, affiliation, dominance, and abasement scales; and below the "average range" on the achievement, deference, and order scales.

Barbara's current vocational ambition is to do office work. Despite her limited preparation of one year of typing and shorthand, in which her performance was at a low level, she wants to do clerical work in an office setting. She has not, however, attempted to seek such employment. She has attempted to find work as a sales clerk but without success. The possibility of returning to high school or enrolling in business courses is beyond her consideration. Except for her observation that it was difficult to find a job, Barbara reported that she is really not concerned about her

future. Disinterest and apathy seem to dominate in her general attitude. Reflecting upon her past activities for which she received positive recognition, she replied "nothing."

The one person in her life that she regards as important is her boyfriend, but she says she does not know why. She makes no specific reference to any other people except for her comments about people in general, which are always critical. She reported that she thinks she has problems but is not able to identify them.

Her response to the interpretation of the aptitude battery was limited to "I thought it was easy." She did not appear to comprehend the results despite the persistent efforts of the counselor to communicate meaning. Attempts to interpret the results of the inventories she has taken were met with similar reactions of little response and lack of understanding.

Barbara's general demeanor during counseling interviews seems to reflect feelings of discomfort and uncertainty.

The counselor in this case has had an initial contact with Barbara. The early moments of the interview were tenuous. Barbara showed some apathy and lack of understanding as to why she came to see a counselor. Gradually, though, she seemed to respond more openly. By the close of the interview, she expressed concerns about herself, her family, and her future. She seemed to understand what a counselor could or could not do for her, and how they might proceed in subsequent interviews.

1. For this particular case, what would you expect might be accomplished in terms of reasonable outcomes as a result of a series of contacts with a counselor and with other appropriate resources? (Assume the counselor by most criteria would be rated effective.)

2. What would you expect as reasonable outcomes if there were no counseling of if the counseling was of "poor" quality?

3. What kinds of information would have made it easier to make the judgments requested in items # 1 and # 2?

4. What would you expect as super-outcomes (exceeding reasonalbe expectations) as a result of a series of contacts with a counselor and with other appropriate resources/? (Assume the counselor by most criteria would be rated effective.)

Administration of Guidance Services
Education 913
School of Education
University of Massachusetts

SARGO #13

Dr. Ronald Fredrickson
Charles F. Popken

American Personnel & Guidance Association Ethical Standards.

Objectives:

1. To demonstrate knowledge in the use of APGA Ethical Standards in solving problems arising from the concept of priveleged communication.

2. To present a five minute statement that answers the question. "Who is your client"?

3. To prepare a resume that presents relevant and complete information, necessary to consideration of YOU as a potential professional employee.

Ethical Standards:

Respond to each of the following situations in a short written statement that indicates how you might act. Support your responses by appropriate references to the Ethical Standards.

1. You inadvertently learn that one of the counselors on your staff has been attending weekend "pot" parties in a distant city. Rumors are current in your school that some of the students this counselor sees regularly have been obtaining "pot" from him for their own parties. The particular counselor is quite popular with all students, and you have been pleased with his work. Would you take any action? What?

2. The local prosecutor would like you to testify about your consultations with a juvenile who is being prosecuted for theft. The prosecutor claims you do not have privileged communications sanction. What action would you take?

3. An 18 year old female student informs you in a counseling session that the assistant principal has been asking her to stay after school to help in the office, or to do other tasks in which the two of them are alone together.

He has made borderline suggestive statements concerning their relationship. She wishes to graduate first in her class and will probably succeed if she earns an "A" in her American Problems course, which the assistant principal teaches. The class valedictorian will receive a $1,500 scholarship, which the girl needs to attend the university. What action would you take?

4. A former client of yours has recently graduated from Teachers College and has applied for an elementary teacher's position in your system. You had helped him toward resolution of a sex role identity crisis when he was in high school. The current superintendent, who was the principal when the applicant was in high school, remembers him as a particularly effeminate boy. He also remembers that the boy underwent extensive counseling with you. The superintendent drops into your office and inquires about the reason for and the results of the counseling. What is your response?

5. During the night a number of bricks were thrown through the windows of the school and of a candy store in town. Glass damage amounted to several hundred dollars. Local police have two suspects in custody and the newspaper reports that charges will be placed against one of the young men. He will neither deny nor admit that he committed the act. He was seen in the area, however, and he has a record of two previous arrests for minor offenses. All indications are that the young men in question will be found guilty when the court convenes this afternoon.

Just before lunch, one of your counselors asks to see you about an important matter that has been bothering him concerning the case. He informs you that one of his regular counselees has boasted that he broke the windows for a lark, and he thinks it funny that another boy is being blamed. This information is not known to the young man scheduled for trial. The counselor does not know what to do since his counselee refuses to be persuaded to admit his guilt publicly. What would be your advice to the counselor?

TED #1 - Typical Encounter of the Day.

Prepare a professional resume including appropriate personal and experiential information. Do not use your real name or address; substitute instead, your mother's maiden name and your sex, i.e., Winslow, male. All other information should be complete and accurate. Reference is made to the out-

line below, to the model resume attached. Adaptations of either or both are permissable.

NAME

Personal:

Date of birth:
Marital status:
Home Address:

Business Address:

Telephones:
Home:
Business:

Education:

Ed.D. 19__
C.A.G.S. 19__
M.Ed. 19__
B.A. 19__

Positions:
(present position first)

Community activities:

Professional organizations and activities:

Research and study projects:

Publications:
(include local publications, i.e., student handbook)

Future plans and goals:
(may be included if appropriate)

TPE #1 - Typical Personal Encounter

Be prepared to role play any one of the five ethical situations you have responded to. This will be an exercise in negotiation as the APGA Ethical Standards do not constitute a statuary defense.

TPE #2

You are making an initial evaluation of three applicants for a position on your staff, according to the information obtained from their resumes. You will rank them in order of desirability. You will then meet with your superintendent, and indicate and justify your order of preference to him.

Bibliography:

Peters, Herman J., and Bruce Shertzer, Guidance: Program Development and Management, 2nd ed., 1969, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, Chapter 14.

Marsh, John J., Let's Close The Confidentiality Gap, The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 48:5, January 1970, p 362.

Daubner, Edward V., and Edith Schell Daubner, Ethics and Counseling Decisions, The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 48:6, February 1970, p. 433.

Kilian, John D., The Law, The Counselor, and Student Records, The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 48:6, February 1970, p. 423.

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ETHICAL STANDARDS

American Personnel and Guidance Association

AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION

1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N. W. Washington 9, D. C.

ETHICAL STANDARDS

American Personnel and Guidance Association

Preamble

The American Personnel and Guidance Association is an educational, scientific, and professional organization dedicated to service to society. This service is committed to profound faith in the worth, dignity, and great potentiality of the individual human being.

The marks of a profession, and therefore of a professional organization, can be stated as follows:

1. Possession of a body of specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes known and practiced by its members.

2. This body of specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes is derived through scientific inquiry and scholarly learning.

3. This body of specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes is acquired through professional preparation, preferably on the graduate level, in a college or university as well as through continuous in-service training and personal growth after completion of formal education.

4. This body of specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes, is constantly tested and extended through research and scholarly inquiry.

5. A profession has a literature of its own, even though it may, and indeed must, draw portions of its content from other areas of knowledge.

6. A profession exalts service to the individual and society above personal gain. It possesses a philosophy and a code of ethics.

7. A profession through the voluntary association of its members constantly examines and improves the quality of its professional preparation and services to the individual and society.

8. Membership in the professional organization and the practice of the profession must be limited to persons meeting stated standards of preparation and competencies.

9. The profession affords a life career and permanent membership as long as services meet professional standards.

10. The public recognizes, has confidence in, and is willing to compensate the members of the profession for their services.

The Association recognizes that the vocational roles and settings of its members are identified with a wide variety of academic disciplines and levels of academic preparation. This diversity reflects the pervasiveness of the Association's interest and influence. It also poses challenging complexities in efforts to conceptualize:

a. the characteristics of members;
b. desired or requisite preparation or practice; and
c. supporting social, legal and/or ethical controls.

The specification of ethical standards enables the Association to clarify to members, future members, and to those served by members the nature of ethical responsibilities held in common by its members.

The introduction of such standards will inevitably stimulate greater concern by members for practice and preparation for practice. It will also stimulate a general growth and identification with and appreciation for both the common and diverse characteristics of the definable roles within the world of work of Association members.

There are six major areas of professional activity which encompass the work of members of APGA. For each of these areas certain general principles are listed below to serve as guide lines for ethical practice. These are preceded by a general section which includes certain principles germane to the six areas and common to the entire work of the Association members.

Section A

General

1. The member exerts what influence he can to foster the development and improvement of the profession and continues his professional growth throughout his career.

2. The member has a responsibility to the institution within which he serves. His acceptance of employment by the institution implies that he is in substantial agreement with the general policies and principles of the institution. Therefore, his professional activities are also in accord with the objectives of the institution. Within the member's own work setting, if, despite his efforts, he cannot reach agreement as to acceptable ethical standards of conduct with his superiors, he should end his affiliation with them.

3. The member must expect ethical behavior among his professional associates in APGA at all times. He is obligated, in situations where he possesses information raising serious doubt as to the ethical behavior of other members, to attempt to rectify such conditions.

4. The member is obligated to concern himself with the degree to which the personnel functions of non-members with whose work he is acquainted represent competent and ethical performance. Where his information raises serious doubt as to the ethical behavior of such persons, it is his responsibility to attempt to rectify such conditions.

5. The member must not seek self-enhancement through expressing evaluations or comparisons damaging to other ethical professional workers.

6. The member should not claim or imply professional qualifications exceeding those possessed and is responsible for correcting any misrepresentations of his qualifications by others.

7. The member providing services for personal remuneration shall, in establishing fees for such services, take careful account of the charges made for comparable services by other professional persons.

8. The member who provides information to the public or to his subordinates, peers, or superiors has a clear responsibility to see that both the content and the manner of presentation are accurate and appropriate to the situation.

9. The member has an obligation to ensure that evaluative information about such persons as clients, students, and applicants shall be shared only with those persons who will use such information for professional purposes.

10. The member shall offer professional services only, through the context of a professional relationship. Thus testing, counseling, and other services are not to be provided through the mail by means of newspaper or magazine articles, radio or television programs, or public performances.

Section B

Counseling

This section refers to practices involving a counseling relationship with a counselee or client and is not intended to be applicable to practices involving administrative relationships with the persons being helped. A counseling relationship denotes that the person seeking help retain full freedom of choice and decision and that the helping person has no authority or responsibility to approve or disapprove of the choices or decisions of the counselee or client. "Counselee" or "client" is used here to indicate the person (or persons) for whom the member has assumed a professional responsibility. Typically the counselee or client is the individual with whom the member has direct and primary contact. However, at times, "client" may include another person (s) when the other person (s) exercise significant control and direction over the individual being helped in connection with the decisions and plans being considered in counseling.

1. The member's *primary* obligation is to respect the integrity and promote the welfare of the counselee or client with whom he is working.

2. The counseling relationship and information resulting therefrom must be kept confidential consistent with the obligations of the member as a professional person.

3. Records of the counseling relationship including interview notes, test data, correspondence, tape recordings, and other documents are to be considered professional information for use in counseling, research, and teaching of counselors but always with full protection of the identity of the client and with precaution so that no harm will come to him.

4. The counselee or client should be informed of the conditions under which he may receive counseling assistance at or before the time he enters the counseling relationship. This is particularly true in the event that there exist conditions of which the counselee or client would not likely be aware.

5. The member reserves the right to consult with any other professionally competent person about his counselee client. In choosing his professional consultant the member must avoid placing the consultant in a conflict of interest situation, *i.e.*, the consultant must be free of any other obligatory relation to the member's client that would preclude the consultant being a proper party to the member's efforts to help the counselee or client.

6. The member shall decline to initiate or shall terminate a counseling relationship when he cannot be of professional assistance to the counselee or client either because of lack of competence or personal limitation. In such instances the member shall refer his counselee or client to an appropriate specialist. In the event the counselee or client declines the suggested referral, the member is not obligated to continue the counseling relationship.

7. When the member learns from counseling relationships of conditions which are likely to harm others over whom his institution or agency has responsibility, he is expected to report *the condition* to the appropriate responsible authority, but in such a manner as not to reveal the identity of his counselee or clients.

8. In the event that the counselee or client's condition is such as to require others to assume responsibility for him, or when there is clear and im-

minent danger to the counselee or client or to others, the member is expected to report this fact to an appropriate responsible authority, and/or take such other emergency measures as the situation demands.

9. Should the member be engaged in a work setting which calls for any variation from the above statements, the member is obligated to ascertain that such variations are justifiable under the conditions and that such variations are clearly specified and made known to all concerned with such counseling services.

Section C

Testing

1. The primary purpose of psychological testing is to provide objective and comparative measures for use in self-evaluation, or evaluation by others of general or specific attributes.

2. Generally, test results constitute only one of a variety of pertinent data for personnel and guidance decisions. It is the member's responsibility to provide adequate orientation or information to the examinee(s) so that the results of testing may be placed in proper perspective with other relevant factors.

3. When making any statements to the public about tests and testing care must be taken to give accurate information and to avoid any false claims or misconceptions.

4 Different tests demand different levels of competence for administration, scoring, and interpretation. It is therefore the responsibility of the member to recognize the limits of his competence and to perform only those functions which fall within his preparation and competence.

5. In selecting tests for use in a given situation or with a particular client the member must consider not only general but also specific validity, reliability, and appropriateness of the test (s).

6. Tests should be administered under the same conditions which were established in their standardization. Except for research purposes explicitly stated, any departures from these conditions, as well as unusual behavior or irregularities during the testing session which may affect the interpretation of the test results, must be fully noted and reported. In this connection, unsupervised test-taking or the use of tests through the mails are of questionable value.

7. The value of psychological tests depends in part on the novelty to persons taking them. Any prior information, coaching, or reproduction of test materials tends to invalidate test results. Therefore, test security is one of the professional obligations of the member.

8. The member has the responsibility to inform the examinee(s) as to the purpose of testing. The criteria of examinee's welfare and/or explicit prior understanding with him should determine who the recipients of the test results may be.

9. The member should guard against the appropriation, reproduction, or modifications of published tests or parts thereof without express permission and adequate recognition of the original author or publisher.

Regarding the preparation, publication, and distribution of tests reference should be made to:

"Tests and Diagnostic Techniques"—Report of the Joint Committee of the American Psychological Association, American Educational Research Association, and National Council of Measurements used in Education. Supplement to *Psychological Bulletin*, 1954, 2, 1–38.

Section D

Research and Publication

1. In the performance of any research on human subjects, the member must avoid causing any injurious effects or after-effects of the experiment upon his subjects.

2. The member may withhold information or provide misinformation to subjects only when it is essential to the investigation and where he assumes responsibility for corrective action following the investigation.

3. In reporting research results, explicit mention must be made of all variables and conditions known to the investigator which might affect interpretation of the data.

4. The member is responsible for conducting and reporting his investigations so as to minimize the possibility that his findings will be misleading.

5. The member has an obligation to make available original research data to qualified others who may wish to replicate or verify the study.

6. In reporting research results or in making original data available, due care must be taken to disguise the identity of the subjects, in the absence of specific permission from such subjects to do otherwise.

7. In conducting and reporting research, the member should be familiar with, and give recognition to, previous work on the topic.

8. The member has the obligation to give due credit to those who have contributed significantly to his research, in accordance with their contributions.

9. The member has the obligation to honor commitments made to subjects of research in return for their cooperation.

10. The member is expected to communicate to other members the results of any research he judges to be of professional or scientific value.

Section E

Consulting and Private Practice

Consulting refers to a voluntary relationship between a professional helper and help-needing social unit (industry, business, school, college, etc.) in which the consultant is attempting to give help to the client in the solving of some current or potential problem.*

1. The member acting as a consultant must have a high degree of self-awareness of his own values and needs in entering a helping relationship which involves change in a social unit.
2. There should be understanding and agreement between consultant and client as to directions or goals of the attempted change.
3. The consultant must be reasonably certain that he or his organization have the necessary skills and resources for giving the kind of help which is needed now or that may develop later.
4. The consulting relationship must be one in which client adaptability and growth toward self-direction are encouraged and cultivated. The consultant must consistently maintain his role as a consultant and not become a decision maker for the client.
5. The consultant in announcing his availability for service as a consultant follows professional rather than commercial standards in describing his services with accuracy, dignity, and caution.
6. For private practice in testing, counseling, or consulting the ethical principles stated in all previous sections of this document are pertinent. In addition, any individual, agency, or institution offering educational and vocational counseling to the public should meet the standards of the American Board on Professional Standards in Vocational Counseling, Inc.

Section F

Personnel Administration

1. The member is responsible for establishing working agreements with supervisors and with subordinates especially regarding counseling or clinical relationships, confidentiality, distinction between public and private material, and a mutual respect for the positions of parties involved in such cases.
2. Such working agreements may vary from one institutional setting to another. What should be the case in each instance, however, is that agreements have been specified, made known to those concerned, and whenever possible the agreements reflect institutional policy rather than personal judgment.
3. The member's responsibility to his superiors requires that he keep them aware of conditions affecting the institution, particularly those which may be potentially disrupting or damaging to the institution.
4. The member has a responsibility to select competent persons for assigned responsibilities and to see that his personnel are used maximally for the skills and experience they possess.
5. The member has responsibility for constantly stimulating his staff for their and his own continued growth and improvement. He must see that staff members are adequately supervised as to the quality of their functioning and for purposes of professional development.
6. The member is responsible for seeing that his staff is informed of policies, goals, and programs toward which the department's operations are oriented.

Section G

Preparation for Personnel Work

1. The member in charge of training sets up a strong program of academic study and supervised practice in order to prepare the trainees for their future responsibilities.
2. The training program should aim to develop in the trainee not only skills and knowledge, but also self-understanding.
3. The member should be aware of any manifestations of personal limitations in a student trainee which may influence the latter's provision of competent services and has an obligation to offer assistance to the trainee in securing professional remedial help.
4. The training program should include preparation in research and stimulation for the future personnel worker to do research and add to the knowledge in his field.
5. The training program should make the trainee aware of the ethical responsibilities and standards of the profession he is entering.
6. The program of preparation should aim at inculcating among the trainees, who will later become the practitioners of our profession, the ideal of service to individual and society above personal gain.

* This definition is adapted from "Dimensions of the Consultant's Job" by Ronald Lippitt, *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XV, No. 2, 1959.